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Contents

The Changing Social Order?	Deobold Van Dalen	147
Educating for Inter-Americanism	Irwin A. Eckhauser	149
Motivating History with Postage Stamps	Robert G. Raymer	151
The Beginnings of Japanese-American Relations	Asa Earl Martin	153
Geographic Games and Tests	W. O. Blanchard	159
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	163
How Can Social Studies Teachers Best Serve in the Present Emergency	M. E. Gladfelter, John B. Mulford, C. D. Hertzog	164
Illustrated Section	Daniel C. Knowlton	167
Term Projects in Social Studies Classes	C. C. Harvey	174
Class-Made Visual Aids with Sound Effects	Timothy E. Smith	175
Visual and Other Aids	Robert E. Jewett	176
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	178
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard Heindel	183
Current Publications Received		190

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

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APRIL, 1942

The Changing Social Order?

DEOBOLD VAN DALEN

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During the past decade there has been in process a popularization of the idea of a "changing social order." On this omnipotent theme, lay and professional groups have attentively listened to perplexing and provocative discussions in their churches, conventions, parent-teacher councils, and youth assemblies. Educators in particular have been prone to discuss, formulate, and develop new curricula for a changing order. It has been frequently stated that it is the duty of the school to educate the children to make the necessary adjustments to meet the demands of this new order. A child in any community in any period of history has had to make a tremendous number of adjustments. However, the number and degree of adjustments that he must make depends upon the factor of pending dislocations. Elaborate and authoritative volumes fill the shelves of our libraries on this impressive phase. These discussions and writings have often been theoretical, technical, and controversial. Although such oratorical and literary tilts are often stimulating there comes a time when we ask ourselves: "What really has changed?"

Our pioneer forefathers who settled along the eastern coast, not to mention the West, faced difficulties which seemed unsurmountable. These early pioneers had to provide food, clothing, and shelter for their families. Wood had to be cut and split; livestock fed; wool spun and woven; crops planted,

cultivated, and harvested; and foodstuffs garnered and prepared for use. On the other hand, we are told that our social status has changed. But what has changed? Men and women still labor to provide the necessities of life—food, clothing, and shelter. Morning and evening, spring and fall, winter and summer, birth and death seem to continue as of old. Men and women fall in love, marry, establish homes, and rear children. Human nature today, in its important overtones, is the same as human nature of the past. Are there any new virtues or sins of the present which have never previously existed? Even the problem of recreation is not one that has been suddenly thrust upon us. Any boy who has spent long winter nights in a farm home, snowbound from the rest of the community, with no newspaper except the small four-page edition a week old, and with several cards missing from the only available deck of cards, realizes that the pioneer home had its problems of leisure.

How then, has the social order changed? From hand labor to constantly increasing mechanization of industry and agriculture, characterized by specialization and mass production; from individual ownership of business to concentration of business wealth and power in the hands of a few hundred great corporations, owned by millions of stockholders, but managed by a relatively few directors; from a self-

sufficient homestead in a community to complex changes in the home life accompanying the rise of the industrial system—the use of the automobile, the development of commercialized amusements, and the appearance of crowded urban sections and multiple dwellings; and from the administration of local affairs by a town hall government to the multiplication of services rendered by municipal government through schools, public health agencies, parks, libraries, hospitals, and other institutions, have become over a period of many years well marked transformations. However, one can hardly believe these transformations are indications of a “changing social order.”

After a decade, the unabated discussions have raised a cloud of dust above the speaker's dias which has obscured the clarity of our horizons. Now, by examining the dispersed particles which have slowly filtered earthward to the darkened rostrums from tremendous oratorical heights, we see where the whole discussion disintegrates. It has been assumed that we have a social order. Everyone seemed to take that for granted. But, we have no social order as yet—not even a bad one. However, we should not become unduly alarmed, for apparently we are moving toward a social order. The contours of social values and characteristics so inevitably required are steadily increasing in broad and expanding humanitarianism. Callous indifference to the general welfare and social responsibilities is gradually diminishing. A social conscience is growing; social perception is increasing. These are not signposts of a “changing” social order, but they are definite signposts of an “emerging” social order; there is a great distinction between the two terms. The failure to see this distinction results in the present general confusion.

What are the minimum considerations of an emerging social order? It has been said that one of the fundamental concepts of a good order is the recognition of the bases of all human rights, which appears to be a respect for personality, a belief in values, and a reverence for the essential sanctity of all that is human. The doctrine of the freedom and independence of every man, woman, and child is the normal foundation of personal worth and dignity. Individual being is of surpassing worth. Other concepts emphasize the economic bases of human liberty and include equal access under law to the sources of common supply, as well as a means by which each individual of his own volition may translate his personal capital into self-support. A good social order is marked by the freedom of enterprise in which every individual pursues his own vocational choice and is protected in the possession and translation of the fruits of his labor. Unquestionably, a social order with such economic foundations is imperative.

In our own society we do, at least to a great extent,

recognize the worth of human welfare. It is our reverence and respect for personality that causes us to look with horror upon the destruction of human liberties by Asiatic and European despotisms.

To continue with our evaluation, in the light of the other concepts, we have not yet advanced sufficiently in the recognition of the economic bases of human liberty which are fundamental in a good social order. We do have, it is true, equal access to the common supply, at least more so, than any other nation at the present. We fall short, however, in giving opportunities to each individual for translating his personal capital into self-support. An individual with a dollar in his pocket may readily exchange it anywhere into supply. Conversely, an individual with productive ability frequently is unable to translate his productive service into self-support. Productive ability should be as easily translatable into supply as the dollar. Granting the importance of supply, the equal and corollary importance of demand must not be overlooked. Supply and demand are related to each other as the palm is to the back of the hand. Some bottlenecks in the system of exchange must be distended. This is a great challenge. Social engineers with foresight and experience are needed to grapple with this problem to assist the emerging social order and weave the coming social fabric.

Heralded by ruthlessness, ingenuity, and malignity, the totalitarian strategy has placed free people on trial. Likewise, we know this order is approaching because in its essential contours and characteristics it is here. Having traditionally committed ourselves to the principles proclaimed in the Declaration of Independence, we are making a humane departure from the despotisms of Europe. These traditional commitments of high social responsibilities of inalienable personal rights must be safeguarded and strengthened. Our access to the common opportunity is here and has to be protected. We must continue to build an economy in which an individual may always be able to translate his personal capital of service into self-support. If we continue developing and integrating these movements towards their fuller embodiment we shall have a social order against which no one who loves the welfare of his kind can denounce his allegiance. In substantial outline, we now see this social order emerging not by sheer force and violence but emerging, social in its motive and orderly in methods and results. Further it is nourished by the deepening enlightenment and wisdom of social consciousness, the growing desire of citizens to grapple with the distempers which advancement generates in quest for solutions of collective problems to advance the general welfare, plus the increasing technical mastery of our people.

“The emerging social order?” Yes! But, “the changing social order?” No!

Educating for Inter-Americanism

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Today the lands of the western hemisphere—from Canada to Chile, from Hawaii to the West Indies—are being more closely knit together than ever. Modern transportation and communication systems have made us New World neighbors for many years. But the bond we have in common is more important and far more personal than geographical grouping. We have a common cause: the cause of Inter-Americanism.

The story of the growth of Inter-Americanism is too well known to justify repetition here. John Quincy Adams sent representatives to Simon Bolivar's first conference, thereby establishing the goodwill of this country, though they arrived too late to be useful. Bolivar's famous plan to create a loose confederation of the New World was something more than a proposal for political machinery. He dreamed of a group of independent nations understanding each other so well that they could settle their disputes, without recourse to arms. He proposed and actually held a conference in Panamá which is the ancestor of the Inter-American conferences today. In time, he believed, the Congress of the American nations might be expanded until it became a form of world organization. Since that time Pan-Americanism has made rapid progress. In spite of mistakes it has brought about a system of cooperative peace and fraternity among the Americas; it has been able to give more peace to more people over a larger area and for longer periods than any system of peace in history. Thus for more than a century, the nations of the Americas have been making strenuous efforts to overcome their political quarrels and strengthen their cultural traditions. Conferences have been held in various capitals and agreements reached on the codification of international law and in the promotion of education, science, the radio, aviation, music, health, agriculture, sanitation and government. Over the conference tables, political and cultural disunity has been overcome by the need for mutual cooperation on common problems.

One of the great bonds among the American republics is the common espousal of democracy. But it is impossible to achieve this ideal unless individuals have a share in the economic advantages of their countries. An increase in the standard of living of the citizens would result in an increase of their political effectiveness. For this kind of economic development some countries need to export more goods, others to gain financial control of their own resources, and probably all could use more technical

assistance. If the United States wants to be a good neighbor in the complete sense of the term, then it must devise ways in which to help its neighbors achieve their individual destinies. President Roosevelt, in an address November 27, 1936 before the Brazilian Supreme Court emphasized:

No nation can live entirely by itself. Each one of us has learned the glories of independence. Let each one of us learn the glories of interdependence! Economically, we supply each other's needs; intellectually, we maintain a constant, a growing exchange of culture, of science, and of thought; spiritually, the life of each can well enrich the life of all. We are showing in international relations what we have long known in private relations—that good neighbors make a good community.

There is in existence adequate peace machinery for the adjustment of disputes of American republics and a tradition which leads the nations to use the machinery. There is need of consultation about non-American affairs leading, as in the case of the Panamá conference, to joint action. What is needed now is to cover this skeleton of political machinery with the flesh and blood to be supplied by cooperative economic and cultural development. There is need for a more complete understanding of our neighbors based on a knowledge of their culture comparable to the knowledge which we as a nation have of European civilization.

Latin America must march side by side with the United States if it wishes to make progress. Geographically and politically it forms a whole with us. The United States must stop regarding South America as an immense colony for exploitation and attain a deeper knowledge of its character. Latin America has a splendid future. Materially, it produces all the economic resources that can be imagined. Culturally it offers at present a revival worthy of notice and pregnant with marvelous potentialities. The culture which has developed in suffering and conflict indicates now the end of an era of experimentation.

Since 1936, there has been a greater interest in relations between the Americas. Books are exchanged; graduate students, professors and technical experts study in the various South American countries. Trade exchanges are functioning to a greater extent than ever before. Exhibitions of Latin American arts and crafts are appearing frequently. Our orchestras have discovered the tantalizing strains of the conga, tango and the rumba. Travel literature and advertisements

stare at us from all sides. Even the colleges and the universities have more than doubled their courses in Latin American studies.

The American movies are belatedly coming into their own by trying to portray some aspects of life of our Latin American neighbors. However, Hollywood has viewed with little respect the culture and civilization of our southern neighbors. The culture of some of the South American countries is highly developed and ought to be familiar to the people of the United States. For example, how many are aware that Chile is the most advanced country in all the Americas in the field of social legislation, and preventive medicine? Our movies ought not to distort life nor ridicule customs but rather should amuse and educate.

On the practical side of Inter-Americanism—the strengthening of trade between the United States and the other Americas—we have made disappointing gains. Last year this trade amounted to \$1,346,900,000, the largest since 1929. But our southern neighbors bought from us \$106,700,000 more goods than we bought from them. If we are to solidify the countries of the Americas, must we not be prepared to increase our purchases from them? Inter-American solidarity must face this trade problem realistically and each must complement the other as much as possible. One fundamental fact must be thoroughly recognized. It takes at least two to make neighbors and every business relationship must be as satisfactory to one side as it is to the other. It is worth pointing out that while \$17,692,000,000 has been appropriated by Congress for military defense, \$3,350,000 has been granted to the Office for Coordinating of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American republics. This office charged with integrating the work of all non-political agencies of Pan-Americanism in the United States and counteracting authoritarian propaganda has been granted a payment equivalent to a fraction of the cost of the newest battleship.

Our success in destroying the insidious propaganda of totalitarianism will be determined not by what we get from our Latin neighbors but rather by what we give. The most effective way to resist totalitarian appeal is to remove the frustrations of the submerged half in Latin America by providing them with the means of a fuller and more enjoyable life. We must recognize that democracy can be defended and preserved only through the well being and happiness of its peoples. Anti-democratic propaganda can best be eliminated by Inter-Americanism. This program offers the means which if carried out will make and keep the western hemisphere a fortress of democracy in a bewildered world.

Yet no phase of Inter-American relations has been more grievously neglected than that of the secondary schools. The existing program of teacher and student exchanges between the Americas is limited to the

college and university level. Most of the educational interchanges for the purpose of building up cultural relations is carried on above the high school range. If the Good Neighbor policy of the government is to be translated into a pattern of cooperative fraternity, there can be little doubt about the need to make Inter-American friendship an objective of public education both on the elementary and the secondary level. The gravity of omitting public schools from such a program was pointed out by the Educational Policies Commission in June 1940, in the following words:

Notwithstanding . . . familiarity with each other's customs and cultures, the peoples of Western Europe have not yet achieved . . . friendship among themselves. Why? While the European universities, scientists, artists, and travelers carried on their education for international friendship, the European elementary and secondary schools, with the exception of those in a few countries, have steadfastly educated for a more and more intense nationalism. Education for Inter-American friendship needs university, technical, trade and cultural exchanges. It still needs something more. The greatest need is education for Inter-American friendship in the elementary and secondary schools. The first duty of all Americans is to know *all* of the Americas. Our high school curriculum in the social studies, in literature, in music, in art and wherever possible should be so organized as to concentrate this prime function of the American public schools in the great effort toward hemispheric unity. More courses on Latin American history would further the appreciation of our youth for the youth of Latin America. It should be the aim of our public school systems to make Spanish and Portuguese our second languages, and to urge that the second language of the Central and South American countries should be the English language. For there can be little misunderstanding between peoples who can meet and freely discuss their problems in a common tongue.

Our textbooks on geography, history, social science, or any other field reveal little on what is said in this country about our southern neighbors or what is said in the Central and South American countries about each other, or about us. The problem is not so much misstatement and wrong impression as it is plain obliviousness. Hemisphere joint-defense will require hemisphere joint-thinking and understanding, forces which cannot grow from joint-ignorance and suspicion. Reference books, maps, slides, films, plays, music, art reproductions and study helps which teachers and pupils need to lay foundation of neighborly good citizenship is another problem that needs to be

solved by our educators here and in Latin America. The roots of friendship between the Americas will grow deep and strong if the educators of all neighboring countries come to understand each other, come to realize that they have the same aspirations, privileges and desires, and that by working together they can lay the foundations for the achievement of real political understanding, better commercial relationships and firmer ties which will make us a stronger group of nations. In such a fashion, education for Inter-Americanism should work for national integration and unity among all countries, and strive for a realistic knowledge of conditions among the southern republics so that international friendships would not be idealized but be based on fact. Pan-Americanism, also, should not be an emergency undertaking. It is not a "for the duration" job. The task is not only for our generation but for the generations to come. This problem will not be solved by diplomatic pronouncements or unilateral action. It requires that the peoples of the western hemisphere know one another. Through knowledge only will come sympathetic understanding and this understanding will bring trust.

In the years that lie ahead, the republics of the

western hemisphere will need each other's friendship and understanding. These are not qualities of character that can be turned on or off like water in a faucet. They grow gradually in the mind and heart of men of good will, particularly when there exists a desire to be friends. They grow slowly and deeply as youth grows up and learns about the world, about themselves, and about their neighbors. They are qualities that our schools can foster for the development of neighborly good citizens. They are qualities that our Inter-Americanism must coax into bloom if we are to lay the foundations of hemisphere unity and world peace.

Within the Americas we have the resources, the man-power, the ability, the ambition, the resourcefulness and the determination to work for cooperative peace. Inter-Americanism requires the unselfish application of these great gifts and blessings. To us, the people of the New World, has been handed the torch of freedom—"cooperative peace." If the lights of the world are not to go out, it is our task to show that progress can come only through mutual cooperation and peace. Inevitably then, the Americas: "United in spirit and purpose cannot be disappointed of their peaceful destiny."

Motivating History with Postage Stamps

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One of the problems of high school teachers is the lack of interest evidenced by some of the boys and girls to whom the academic subjects seem trivial and useless. History as a record of the past does not appeal; as an explanation of the present it becomes vital to some of those who formerly found no zest in its pursuit. But at least three-fourths of the high school pupils, bright and dull together, have had at one time, or now have a keen interest in the collection of postage stamps. Can a clever teacher use this hobby to motivate the study of history?

Some of the fundamentals of the hobby should be in possession of the teacher in order that his knowledge may add to his authority and influence. The stamp collector is aware of differences in color and perforation, in size and shape, in watermark and paper. The Scott Stamp and Coin Company of New York City publishes annually an illustrated catalogue giving complete description of almost every stamp ever issued and this volume is the *vade mecum*, the indispensable tool of every serious philatelist.

Some collectors confine their activity to one coun-

try, others to the French or British colonies. Some collect only stamps illustrated with pictures of ships, others with animals or birds. One stamp fan known to the author has a collection of several thousand different specimens each possessing a certain religious interest.

But for the motivation of history we turn to those stamps which carry an advertising or propagandist appeal; or which bear portraits of rulers. Ethnology, closely allied to history, is represented in series published by Russia, Mexico, Austria, France and the Belgian Congo. In the last-named we find a series issued in 1922 which not only shows examples of different native tribesmen but also illustrates various economic activities such as the making of baskets, carving wood, weaving, making pottery, working rubber, and making palm oil.

Colombia utilizes a series of stamps to advertise its coffee, cattle, petroleum, bananas, emeralds and gold. Greece invited tourist trade by pictorializing its historic buildings. Argentina advertises her cattle, sheep, oil, sugar, fruit, cotton and grapes. A His-

panic-American country proudly proclaims that she produces the best coffee in the world!



In the field of propaganda we find Italy issuing a series which was designed to remind her despondent people of their own great historical background—Romulus and Remus with their wolf-mother, Julius and Augustus Caesar, an ancient Roman goddess. When the Saar was returned, Germany published a "tear-jerker" showing a child in the arms of its mother with the inscription: "The Saar comes home." When Paraguay was having trouble with Bolivia over the northwestern limits, two stamps appeared bearing maps of Paraguay showing the territory in dispute included within its own boundaries. In 1912, Great Britain issued an adhesive bearing an allegorical "Britannia rules the waves."



But it is in the field of portraiture that the largest historical values are to be found. Nearly every nation has used the likenesses of its rulers on its postal issues and the study of these pictures leads easily into much history. For example, Russia, upon the occasion of the third centenary of Romanov rule celebrated in 1913, put out a series showing the portraits of eleven members of the family. A study of the history connected with these rulers would give the pupils a comprehensive view of Russia since 1613.

History of the colonization of the New World is illustrated in numerous picturizations of Cristobal Colon by various governments. Newfoundland has used portraits of John Cabot, John Guy, Lord Bacon, Henry VII, James I and Sir Humphrey Gilbert. To this list Canada adds a picture of Cartier's landing at Quebec and the United States has used such notables as John Smith, General George Oglethorpe, Virginia Dare and Roger Williams.

The description of a minor and a major project will illustrate more specifically the utilization of an interest in postage stamps to encourage the study of history.

Let us assume that a class in European history has reached the point of studying the development of modern England since the accession of Victoria. It was in her reign (1840) that the influence of Rowland Hill brought about the use of the first adhesive postage stamp. Since that time, a portrait of each of the five sovereigns has appeared upon various issues. Specimens of these are plentiful and to be found in the collections of thousands of high school pupils.

If the teacher will ask the donation of a sample of each portrait, interest will immediately be aroused as to what use is to be made of this material. After they have been received, the next step is to distribute each to a separate group with instructions to examine and report upon the importance of each to the realm. Comparisons, contrasts and evaluations easily follow.

A more elaborate project involves the study of all modern Europe. The first step is the drafting of a good-sized outline map of the continent, say 24 x 36,

showing the boundaries of the sovereignties as of 1915, let us say, the capitals, other cities of major importance and principal rivers. More detail is confusing.

With few exceptions, portraits of the various rulers are available. (France has never used the pictures of its presidents, and it was not until 1935 that Greece employed the portrait of her king.) The study of each of these pictured sovereigns involves the pursuit of history which is the principal object of the class.

As each report is made, the portrait is attached to the border of the map and a silk thread is fastened leading from the appropriate capital to the stamp. A box of tiny stars, conveniently gummed, may be purchased at any stationery store with which to anchor the thread upon the spot indicating the capital. After the report is completed, the wood-working class may be requested to frame the exhibit, if desired.

Many high schools maintain stamp clubs. The sponsorship of such enterprises furnishes a valuable opportunity for the history teacher to make his work more valuable to the pupil in the informal discussion of historical matters involved.

The Beginnings of Japanese-American Relations

ASA EARL MARTIN

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By the middle of the nineteenth century, the United States had expanded to the shores of the Pacific. Yankee seamen had developed a considerable trade with China, a few of whose ports had been opened to commerce, and were scouring the north Pacific area in quest of the whale and the valuable pelts obtained from the American coastal region. With the passing of time an increasing number of Americans engaged in these pursuits were forced, either because of a shortage of supplies or because of the violence of storms, to seek refuge on one or another of the Japanese Islands extending for a distance of some 2,500 miles along the coast of Asia. There these unfortunate sailors were subjected to maltreatment, and often death, at the hands of the inhospitable Japanese, whose national policy of seclusion and exclusion had sealed her ports to all contact with the outside world, save for the admission of a single Dutch ship each year. Indeed, for more than two centuries they had neither received diplomatic representatives from the governments of foreign countries nor had sent them.

These people were living wholly within themselves and on their own material resources when Commodore Perry sailed into the Bay of Yedo on his memorable voyages of 1853 and 1854 to demand from Japan humane treatment of those of our sailors whom the misfortunes of the sea cast on her shores. After twenty years of futile intermittent attempts on the part of the United States to do this, the fear of Commodore Perry's powerful guns promptly effected a change of heart. Japan not only furnished definite assurances for the safety and ultimate return of our stranded seamen but also opened two of her ports under somewhat restricted conditions to American commerce.

In conformity with one of the provisions of the treaty arranged by Commodore Perry, President Pierce appointed Townsend Harris as Consul General to the Empire of Japan. Harris, who arrived at his post in August, 1856, was admirably qualified to discharge well the responsible duties confided to him. Not only was he equipped with a ripe knowledge of Oriental peoples and with commercial experience acquired in the business training of an active mercantile life, but he had remarkable qualities of observation, judgment, and efficiency together with

a thorough knowledge of international law and practice. In his conversations he assured the Japanese government that "the policy of the United States is different from that of other countries. She has no territory in the East," he declared, "neither does she desire to acquire any there. Her government forbids obtaining possessions in other parts of the world, and we have refused all requests of distant countries to join our nation." In a remarkably short time, he won the confidence of the Japanese officials and negotiated (in 1858) a commercial treaty, the first of its kind made by Japan with any foreign power. Its provisions agreed on customs duties, opened additional ports to our commerce, established the system of extraterritoriality, and granted a limited toleration to Christians. In both form and content this was a model for similar treaties made by Japan with other foreign nations for nearly half a century thereafter. As time went on, the public in Japan came to appraise highly the role played by Perry and Harris in the development and the modernization of their country. Moreover, a spirit of good-will and confidence pervaded their relations with the United States until the early years of the twentieth century, when a succession of events arose to menace the peace of the Pacific and to bring the United States and Japan on a number of occasions to the verge of war.

This spirit of trustful understanding characteristic of the period from the date of the signing of the treaty in 1858 to the end of the century was probably best exemplified in the coming of a large delegation of Japanese statesmen to the United States during the early months of 1860. This visit was really the result of the destruction of the Japanese copy of the Townsend Harris treaty in a great fire in Yedo, Japan. On hearing of this loss, the government at Washington dispatched an invitation to that of the Mikado to send over an embassy to participate in the formal exchange of ratifications of a duplicate copy. Since the Japanese possessed neither a navy nor a merchant marine, the United States expressed her desire to transport the members of the mission to and from Washington and to bear the expenses of the trip. Although Japan had not sent an embassy to any foreign country for 276 years, she accepted the invitation and made arrangements for the journey during the early months of 1860.

Accordingly, Captain George F. Pearson in command of the *Powhatan*, a powerful man-of-war then stationed in Chinese waters, was ordered to bring this Japanese mission to the United States. After Captain Pearson had completed reconditioning his ship to provide satisfactory accommodations for his distinguished guests, he proceeded to Kangawa, Japan, where they came aboard on February 13, 1860, to begin the journey to San Francisco.

The embassy consisted of seventy-two persons, of whom fifty-two were servants. The two ambassadors were princes, and the censor and vice-governor were noblemen. These and the other members of the party as well were men of superior rank, refinement, and intelligence at the Imperial court. They carried with them eighty tons of baggage, including fifteen large boxes filled with gifts for the President and other governmental officials, and funds in excess of \$100,000 to meet their personal expenses.

Meanwhile, the approaching visit of these oriental dignitaries attracted nation-wide interest in the United States. Indeed, for several weeks newspapers and magazines in every part of the country ran numerous articles giving such detailed information as they possessed about the customs, the habits, the government, and the peculiarities of the Japanese people. Although the information was often meager, when judged by the total output, and often erroneous as to details, these periodicals were unanimous in extending to the embassy a most cordial welcome to our shores. Typical of these article is the following extract from a lengthy editorial in the *New York Journal of Commerce*, April 12, 1860:

In our reception of these tawny envoys we should remember that they do not represent a nation of "outside barbarians," but a race which, with all its immaturities, eccentricities and caprices, has reached a high, although peculiar degree of civilization. . . . Of all the races of Asia and of the islands of the Indian Ocean and the North Pacific, and of the great teeming human life east of Persia, . . . the Japanese are the most progressive and advanced, and in every element which makes up national greatness, the most worthy of respect and esteem. In activity of mind, energy and character, and a certain gay light heartedness, they differ largely from other Orientals, while their curiosity, love of knowledge, general go-ahead spirit, and desire of improvement, form a striking contrast to the coldness, incredulity, skepticism and apathetic indifference of the Chinese. . . .

It is not too much to say that we are to receive an Embassy from a valiant, polite, industrious and virtuous nation. There are many indications that the Japanese are a race of gentlemen. . . . This curious and progressive race wants to know

us thoroughly, and they will doubtless be able and anxious to adopt our discoveries in mechanics and science. . . .

The *Baltimore Exchange*, however, in common with many of the other great newspapers of the country, manifested also considerable skepticism in connection with the contemplated visit of the Japanese statesmen to the United States. It approved the purpose of the mission in unmistakable terms, but enumerated various possible difficulties connected with its reception by our people, most of which later proved to be real. In its issue of April 1, 1860, it said:

The visit is no doubt very complimentary; but we fear that it will prove not a little embarrassing. Sharper contrasts there could not be than between our habits, manners, customs and political institutions and those of Japan. Fancy three lemon-colored Asiatic princes traversing our public streets, habited in loose thin robes of dark blue silk, fastened by a silken girdle over a loose pair of trousers of lighter color, but of similar material. On the left side, thrust through the girdle, two swords with richly ornamented belts. On the right, a copper ink bottle and penholder, and a quaint tobacco pipe and pouch. Imagine, also, each robe figured like the Tarbard of the ancient Herald, with the armorial bearings which symbolize the rank of the grandee; upon the head a palm leaf hat; upon the feet slippers of rice straw, and then reflect upon the sensation which such strangely attired visitors will create, and the crowds by which they will be followed and jostled.

When we consider, too, how sensitive the Japanese nobles are in matters of etiquette; and how fastidious they are upon some points, which being national habits with us pass almost without remark, we are at a loss to know how our government will be able to prevent its guests from being subjected to what they have been accustomed, in their own land, to regard as indignities, or from doing things themselves which in Japan involve no breach of good manners, but which with us are classed among improprieties. To spit in the presence of a Japanese is one of those grave offences for the commission of which no subsequent apology can adequately atone; whilst to bathe in public is in their opinion not only a cleanly habit but one that is also perfectly correct and decorous. How can we reconcile these differences?

It might be possible to induce a Japanese prince to take his bath in private; but it would be resented as an infringement of the liberty of an American sovereign to interdict him from

spitting anywhere he pleases. . . . Upon what viands shall we feed some sixty or seventy Asiatics, whose principal diet from time immemorial has been fish and vegetables, is another delicate point. Of the taste of mutton they know nothing, pork they despise; . . . the lordly sirloin and the juicy steak offer no temptation to their palate; milk they never drink; butter they never use, and of the multitude of made dishes, in which French cookery delights, they are wholly ignorant. Happily, they have acquired recently, under the genial tuition of American and European officers, a decided taste for sugar cured hams and champagne. Of pastry, too, they are inordinately fond. So that with fowl and rice, fish and pastry, they will not be really in any danger of suffering either from hunger or thirst. . . . But whenever the members of this the first embassy from the shores of Eastern Asia that ever was accredited to a nation of this Continent, shall make their appearance, . . . we trust that they will be received in a manner befitting them. . . .

Literally hundreds of articles of this kind not only informed their readers of the manner of life of the guests soon to land on our shores and of the country whence they came, but also lectured the public on etiquette and good manners. As a matter of fact, the popular interest in the Japanese mission, if judged by the amount of space devoted to it by the press of the land during the first half of 1860, actually overshadowed that in the approaching presidential election and in the grave issues that were soon to involve the nation in a devastating civil war.

On March 31, after an uneventful voyage of forty-six days, which included a stop at the Hawaiian Islands, the members of the delegation landed at San Francisco and were taken to the International Hotel. Previous to their arrival, the city council had voted to make them the guests of the city, had appropriated \$20,000 to meet their necessary expenses, and had appointed a committee for their "suitable entertainment." All the officers of the city, the members of the legislature, the governor, and great numbers of influential business and professional men paid their respects in person to the visitors, and a grand dinner and public reception were tendered them at the largest hall in the city. After a week of entertainments unsurpassed in elaborateness in the history of the municipality, the party again boarded the *Powhatan* and proceeded southward to Panama, where they arrived on April 25. Thence they crossed the Isthmus on the recently constructed Panama Railroad to Aspinwall to the waiting United States ship *Roanoke*, which carried them to Hampton Roads. There the embassy transferred again to the chartered steamer, *Philadelphia*. This bore them up the Potomac to

Washington, where they disembarked on May 14, three months from the date of their departure from their native land.

For the reception and entertainment of the embassy in the city of Washington, the most elaborate preparations had been made both by the municipal authorities and by the national government. Congress, on its part, placed \$50,000 at the disposal of the Secretary of State "to defray the expenses of the envoys and suite constituting the Japanese Embassy." Sixty rooms were engaged for them on the second floor of the Willard Hotel, with their own private entrance, dining room, and kitchen and with special bathing facilities. Many of the rooms were redecorated, and a special balcony was built.

Although no ceremony had been planned for the landing of the embassy, the Mayor and the council of Washington and many members of Congress and administrative officials as well as a great number of the inhabitants of the city went to the pier to welcome the guests of the government. On the arrival of the *Philadelphia* with the embassy, a shore battery fired a salute of seventeen guns; and the Japanese rode in carriages to the Willard Hotel preceded by a military escort and the Marine Band. The great avenues of the city through which the procession passed, according to the *Washington Daily National Intelligencer*, were crowded with people "like an inauguration day." Indeed, the enthusiasm for the mission was wholehearted and widespread. A few days after their arrival, a reporter for the *New York Daily Tribune* wrote: "The Japanese Embassy fills the city. It absorbs universal attention. Outside of political circles there is nothing else. The Japanese may be curious, but the curiosity of the Yankees cannot be beat. . . . It is a show and all shows pay. . . ." This was no overstatement of the case, for from the day of their arrival until their departure four weeks later, this exuberant curious interest never abated.

On May 17, President Buchanan entertained the embassy in the White House with a formal reception, which for uniqueness as well as elaborateness has few, if any, equals in our history. The *Philadelphia Public Ledger* on the following day described it thus:

The Japanese Embassy, properly attended by their officers and the Naval Commission, left Willard's Hotel about half-past eleven o'clock, this morning, on their way to the President's House. They rode in open carriages, with a force of twenty-five uniformed policemen in front, and the same number in the rear, while the marines and ordinance men marched on each side of the vehicles to the music of the Marine Band.

The chief Prince was arrayed in a rich brocade, purple silk sack, with ample overhang-

ing sleeves, and flowing trousers of the same color. The other two dignitaries were in green of a similar texture and fashion. They wore caps like inverted ladies cabas, fastened on the crown of the head by strings passing under the chin. They carried pikes, halberds, and emblems of their rank. The inferior officers wore small hats with a round band and triangular crown.

The prominent points along the route were occupied by spectators, the streets were crowded with the multitudes following to the President's House. Meanwhile, in the East Room, there had assembled a brilliant company among whom were the New York Municipal Committee, who came hither to invite the Japanese to visit that city. . . .

The Navy officers formed in a line in the East Room; prominent among them was Captain Tattnell. The Army officers formed another line; Lieutenant General Scott was prominent, together with his Staff.

Between these lines there was an open space about twenty five feet wide, which was to be the scene of the great presentation, and the interest was intense, and the usual stir characterized the preliminary proceedings.

The folding doors were opened at noon, when the President of the United States [Mr. Buchanan] entered, accompanied by his Cabinet officers, and they took a position on the east side facing the west.

Secretary Cass retired to the ante-room and returned with the Japanese Commissioners and their attendants, who made several profound bows as they approached the President and his Cabinet.

Then one of the Japanese opened a series of paper boxes, one within another, and produced several letters, which were handed to the President, and by him to Mr. Cass.

The Principal Ambassador of the Japanese then addressed the President as follows:

"His Majesty, the Tycoon, has commanded us that we respectfully express to His Majesty, the President of the United States, in his name, as follows: Desiring to establish, on a firm and lasting foundation, the relations of peace and commerce so happily existing between the two countries that lately the Plenipotentiaries of both countries have negotiated and concluded a treaty, now he has ordered us to exchange the ratification of the treaty in your principal city of Washington. Henceforth he hopes that the friendly relations shall be held more lasting, and be very happy to have your friendly feeling. . . ."

Having delivered their message, they retired, bowing to the President and Cabinet repeatedly in leaving their presence.

They soon, however, returned, bowing profoundly, when the President addressed them as follows:

"I give you a cordial welcome, as representatives of his Imperial Majesty, the Tycoon of Japan, to the American Government. We are all much gratified that the first Embassy which your great Empire has ever accredited to any foreign power has been sent to the United States. I trust that this will be the harbinger of perpetual peace and friendship between these two great countries. The treaty of commerce, whose ratification you are about to exchange with the Secretary of State, cannot fail to be productive of benefits and blessings to the people both of Japan and of the United States. I can say for myself, and promise for my successors, that it shall be carried into execution in a faithful and friendly spirit, so as to secure to both countries all the advantages they may justly expect from the happy auspices under which it has been negotiated and ratified. I rejoice that you are pleased with the kind treatment which you have received on board our vessel of war, whilst on your passage to this country. You shall be sent back in the same manner to your native land, under the protection of the American flag. Meanwhile, during your residence amongst us, which I hope may be prolonged so as to enable you to visit different portions of our country, we shall be happy to extend to you all the hospitality and kindness eminently due to the great and friendly sovereign whom you so worthily represent."

The President handed them a copy of his address and then shook hands with them.

The next day, Secretary of State Lewis Cass held one of the most brilliant receptions ever seen in the capital. This was followed by numerous social functions of less importance, including a dinner at the White House by President Buchanan on May 25. The Japanese on their part gave receptions to governmental officials and members of Congress. These, held at the Willard Hotel, provided an excellent opportunity for a large number of individuals to meet the members of the mission personally. Later the embassy visited places of interest and information in the city.

According to the prearranged program, the ceremonies connected with the ratification and exchange of treaties took place in the office of the Secretary of State on May 22. The letter from the Great Tycoon to President Buchanan and the copy of the treaty were carried in a red Morocco leather chest prepared

especially for that purpose. This "Treaty Box" containing these two documents was regarded by the members of the embassy as almost sacred and was never allowed to be out of the sight of a special guard. Around the box, which was three feet long, twenty-six inches deep, and eighteen inches wide, was a light frame, which facilitated its being carried on poles on the backs of four men.

The only matter in which the Japanese ambassadors appear to have been authorized to act beyond the formal exchange of the ratification of the Townsend Harris treaty was to obtain some official information as to the relative intrinsic value of Japanese and American coins in order that Japan might at an early date establish some definite standard. In this matter, they relied almost wholly on the good faith of our government by acknowledging their inability to calculate the differences of their own and our currencies without assistance here and asking only that a perfectly just estimate on both sides be presented.

In accordance with their national customs, the Japanese in the name of "His Imperial Majesty, the Tycoon," presented to President Buchanan many valuable presents. One of these was a magnificent tea-set made of Japanese ware, delicately inlaid with pearls and fine gold, said to have cost \$3,000. The other articles comprised saddlery, richly embroidered and embossed; bed screens and curtains similar to those used by the princes of Japan; two swords of superior workmanship; paper hangings ornamented with gold; lacquered ware, including writing cases; and many miscellaneous articles. The visitors presented costly gifts also to Secretary Cass and other governmental officials.

During their stay in Washington, the members of the embassy were continually embarrassed by hundreds of curious people, who followed them about when they appeared on the streets or in the stores. The reporter for the *New York Daily Tribune* wrote on June 11: "The last few days in that city [Washington] were days of confusion. Public curiosity unappeased by a month of observation grew to irrepressible heights. The Japanese quarters at Willard's were bodily besieged by battalions of sufficiently fair but altogether unruly women who so deported themselves that the authorized guardians of the corridors gave themselves over to despair, and after some vain struggles, at last threw up all authority, and let events take their course, which ran as roughly as true love." Similar descriptions, though not so pointed, of the conduct of the people of the capital city toward the guests appeared from time to time in the Washington, the Philadelphia, and other New York papers.

At the final ceremonial audience with the President before the departure of the embassy for Baltimore on June 9, the first ambassador thanked the

President and the American people for their kind treatment and stated in behalf of his sovereign that Japan "will always endeavor to strengthen and to increase the friendly relations so happily established between the two countries." In his reply President Buchanan said in part: "The arrival of these distinguished Commissioners from the Tycoon has been a very propitious and agreeable event in my administration. It is a historic event, which I trust will unite the two nations together in bonds of friendship throughout time." He then gave each of the Commissioners a gold medal struck at the Mint in commemoration of their arrival and their services in this country. On one side of the medals in high relief was the head of Mr. Buchanan in profile; on the other the following words were engraved: "In Commemoration of the First Embassy from Japan to the United States, 1860." These medals were enclosed in red Morocco boxes inscribed: "Presented by the President of the United States to the Ambassadors from Japan." The other seventy members of the embassy received twenty silver and fifty bronze medals. President Buchanan, Secretary Cass, and other officials bestowed gifts on the Ambassadors; and many presents were prepared for the Tycoon.

Although the Japanese received courteously deputations of citizens from most of the leading cities in the East with invitations to visit their respective cities, they were becoming so tired of the endless ceremonies that they declined all except the invitations from Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York.

After a sojourn of twenty-six days in Washington, the embassy, on June 9, went by the government's special train to Baltimore to be the official guests of that city for two days. At the station they were met by an enormous crowd of people and the officials of the city, who escorted them to their hotel. The mayor and the council gave an elaborate dinner in honor of the visitors; and in the evening in front of their hotel, the City Fire Department gave a demonstration, which was followed by a display of fireworks.

From Baltimore the embassy made a "triumphal" journey to Philadelphia in another special train provided by the government of the United States. For their reception in the "Cradle of Liberty" the Common Council had made elaborate preparation, sparing neither money nor time. Among the other things in their succession of planned events was a huge parade, in which many dignitaries of the state and the nation as well as the First Division of the State Militia and the local military organizations were to participate. On their arrival in Philadelphia, the Japanese saw one of the largest crowds of people ever assembled in that city, thousands of whom had come from distant towns. After the mayor's formal speech of welcome, which was answered by the first prince,

the officials took their places in the military procession and proceeded to the hotel with as much dignity as was possible considering the throngs of crowding onlookers.

According to the *New York Daily Tribune*, June 11, 1860: After reaching the Continental Hotel:

the Ambassadors were conducted to the windows whence they might gaze upon the crowd below, and an inspiring sight they must have found it. An insufficient police struggled desperately with a wild mob which every minute broke through the lines, and flooded the space the military vainly strove to keep clear. The conflict never ceased. It was an interminable succession of high words and close fighting. Men were knocked down and dragged away upon the smallest provocation, or on no provocation at all; for with customary astuteness, the policemen always made the innocent suffer the most. Women ran screaming around terrified out of their wits, and were thrust recklessly hither and thither by the not less bewildered officers.

The following day, Sunday, the Japanese, contrary to the plans of the committee, remained in their rooms. In fact, much difficulty was experienced in getting them to agree to any program while in the city on account of the throngs that gathered about them when they appeared on the streets. They said that they disliked being a spectacle.

Under the heading, "The Japanese in Philadelphia," *The Patriot Daily Union* (Harrisburg, Pa.,) on June 12 said:

The long interval which has elapsed "between drinks" in Philadelphia, induced the denizens of that staid city to go into the first excitement that offered with a zest that shows how much their actual existence depends upon periodical excitements. The Japanese arrived there on Saturday afternoon last, and were paraded through the streets amid the salvos of light and heavy artillery, and the noise of drum and trumpet. Houses were decorated with the flags of Japan, ladies wore Japanese mantles and bonnets, gents "soined up" on Japanese cocktails and smashes, and for a while all Philadelphia was Japanese mad. These lions will be all the rage for a few days, when they will depart and give way to a later or fresher novelty, and in a few years their visit will be forgotten. "Such is life"—especially in Philadelphia.

Beginning on Monday, the members of the embassy spent a busy week visiting public buildings, business establishments, the United States Mint, and other places of interest and attending a round of receptions, which, though fewer in number due to the shortness of the visit, rivaled those of the capital city. The Japanese seemed to be much pleased with

Philadelphia's stores, in which they made purchases estimated by the *Philadelphia Public Ledger* (June 16, 1860,) at \$100,000.

After expressing their appreciation of the hospitality of Philadelphia, the visitors set out for New York, whose council had voted \$30,000 to be expended for entertainment. They crossed the Delaware river by boat to Camden, where they boarded a special train of three coaches. Again crowds were gathered at all the stations along their way. At Amboy, where the New York Committee met them, the party was transferred to the boat *Alida* and carried across the Hudson to the Battery. There a military and civic parade exceeding in size that of the rival city of Philadelphia was waiting to escort them past throngs of onlookers to the Metropolitan Hotel, the entire second floor of which had been reserved for their exclusive use. Although the people cheered continually and manifested every possible expression of cordial welcome, the three ambassadors "sat unmoved, unreplying, almost unnoticed the tumultuous and kaleidoscopic scene."

On the afternoon of June 18, Mayor Fernando Wood, after salutations of handshaking performed across the writing table of George Washington, welcomed them to the city. In the course of his remark he said:

Your Excellencies are aware that in this city lived and died Commodore Perry, a very distinguished American officer, who visited Japan in a similar capacity to that in which you now visit us, as the Envoy of peace and good will. New York is now the home of Hon. Townshend Harris, another eminent citizen, who is known to you as the representative of the United States to your Government.

We recollect with grateful feelings the consideration with which the Imperial Government of Japan received and entertained these citizens of New York, and we now gladly avail ourselves of the present opportunity to offer in return our own more feeble demonstrations of hospitality.

The first ambassador replied in a brief but appropriate address of thanks for the kind treatment accorded the members of the embassy in New York. After Governor Morgan had offered a few words of greeting, the members of the embassy were introduced to the officials present.

By far the most brilliant as well as the most extensive among the many formal events was the "Municipal Reception Dinner and Ball" given at the Metropolitan Hotel. *Harper's Weekly*, June 30, 1860, in describing the affair said:

The Ball was given, as every one knows, by the city, and was, probably, the finest public entertainment ever given in this country. . . . Supper

was laid for 10,000 persons, though the number of tickets issued was probably much more than ten thousand; all the leading officials of this and the neighboring cities and our most distinguished citizens having been invited. The champagne, punch, and lemonade were provided by the barrel, and the edibles in equal profusion. Five bands of music discoursed sweet strains to the dancers.

After the various items of expense had been received, it was learned, to the astonishment of thousands of taxpayers, that the Ball alone had cost the city \$105,000 although only \$30,000 had been appropriated for the entire entertainment of the Japanese. The enormous cost of the affair together with the method of distributing tickets occasioned much adverse comment in the press and many charges of extravagance and favoritism.

As the time for the departure of the Japanese drew near, it was apparent to all that they were very tired of the fuss and the parade made over them. The long journey from Japan to Washington, followed as it was by strenuous public and private activity, had overtaxed their nerves. On June 30, they were escorted by a military procession and the city officials to the dock, where they boarded the new battleship *Niagara*, the largest in our navy if not in the world at that time, which the government had assigned for their use on their homeward voyage, and which Captain W. F. McKean had had fitted up with oriental splendor for the accomodation of his official passengers. The homeward journey was made by way of the Cape Verde Islands and the Cape of Good Hope. The embassy finally arrived in Yedo Bay, Japan, November 8, 1860, nearly ten months after its departure from Japan for the United States.

In estimating the significance of this visit of the first Japanese embassy to the United States, various considerations suggest themselves, not the least of which is the contrast between the attitudes of both countries in 1860 and at present. That the United States government should invite the Japanese govern-

ment to appoint a special commission to visit Washington for the exchange of ratifications of the Townsend Harris Treaty was in no way remarkable; but that this commission of seventy-two members should be transported to and from the United States in American war vessels and have all expenses while in this country paid by our government was indeed an unusual, almost unprecedented act in international relations. No less a matter of comment was the attitude of the American public toward these strangers. Though many distinguished foreigners visiting America have been shown special honors by our municipal, state, and national officials, few, if any, have been so universally welcomed and so lavishly entertained out of the public funds of our national and municipal governments as were the Japanese. Furthermore, the welcome accorded to the Commissioners by the American people generally, judged by the attitude of the newspapers and by the enormous public demonstrations in San Francisco and our eastern cities, was enthusiastic and genuine. Scarcely a word of criticism or suspicion of either the Japanese people or the Japanese government was voiced in the press. All appeared to regard them as a capable, trustworthy, and active people.

Although the chief motive that prompted our national and city governments to receive the Japanese with these signal honors was an unselfish one inspired by a desire to lend Japan a helping hand in the solution of the many domestic and foreign problems arising from the sudden abrogation of her time-honored policy of seclusion and exclusion, many hoped and believed that the opening of Japan to the commerce of the world would result in the development of trade between the two countries.

In turn, the American people and the United States government appeared to have made a most favorable impression on the visitors, notwithstanding the remarks of our press. For nearly half a century, Japan leaned heavily on us for friendly advice and assistance. Mutual good will and the most cordial friendship resulted for a time.

Geographic Games and Tests

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Past numbers of THE SOCIAL STUDIES have contained series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the school year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased by

omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

G 45. THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF EUROPE (1938)

The names of the principal countries of Europe are hidden in the statements below, one in each. The letters in the names are in their exact order. Underline the names.

1. The franc, equal to about five cents in our money, is a small French coin.
2. Paris is larger, many times larger, than Marseilles.
3. The stranger said he was a Yugo-slav. I accepted his statement as correct.
4. At last all three were united; king, dominions, and the home land were all one again.
5. As a result of the accidental shots, painful wounds were inflicted on a bystander.
6. Keeping step with the beating of a drum, a Niagara regiment swung into the line of march.
7. A small ship or tug alongside the great liner supplied the power.
8. Since they were not united, socialist, soviet republics could hardly make a strong military force.
9. "As for the Bulgar," I added, "he is a farmer, not a factory worker."
10. Because of the abundant deposits of silt by the river Po, land is being rapidly formed at the delta.
11. Just above the lion's den, marks of the fearful struggle were found.
12. Her plan had worked; the enemy had walked into the net; her lands and her flocks were again safe.
13. They built a fort on a bluff, inland from the sea about a mile.
14. Both twins wed enterprising business men of the community.
15. Eleanor waylaid her father in the library before he left for the office.
16. Now we were positive of it. A lynx had escaped the cage.
17. I agree. Cement makes the best pavement, better than brick or asphalt.
18. The huge fish aroused his ire. Landing him without a net seemed impossible.
19. We had hoped to shun Gary's congested streets by going around the city.
20. He wrote: "I first played ball with the American troops in Brussels, Belg. I umpired the games and also coached in the International League later."
21. The caretaker of the mosque, a Turk, eyed us rather suspiciously.
22. He said, "I am a Switzer. Landing upright on a pair of skis is easy for me."

G 46. EUROPE—IS IT TRUE?

(1938 Boundaries)

Some of the following statements are correct, others incorrect. Correct the wrong ones by changing a word or two. Do nothing with the former.

1. France with its abundant coal and Germany with its great iron ore deposits have in these possessions a basis for profitable exchange.
2. The Pyrenees serving as the "back bone" of Italy seriously reduces the proportion of cultivable land of that country.
3. Since it is so far north, the coast of Norway is naturally closed by ice in winter.
4. The Riviera is a famous summer resort on the Mediterranean coast of France and Italy.
5. In proportion to its area Europe has a very long coastline and a very small percentage of it climatically unsuited to agriculture.
6. The Volga is both the longest and the most used river of Europe.
7. Since the principal relief features of Europe trend north-south the climatic influence of the ocean is felt far inland.
8. The Dardanelles-Marmora-Bosporus waterway allows ships to enter the Caspian Sea from the Mediterranean and Aegean Seas.
9. The larger part of the forests, agricultural land and iron ore deposits of Scandinavia lie in Sweden.
10. Sicily, at the tip of the Italian peninsula, has a considerable summer rainfall.
11. Amsterdam on the Rhine is a great commercial rival of Rotterdam on the old Zuider Zee.
12. The Kiel Canal in Denmark joins the Baltic with the North Sea.
13. Wheat growing in Britain is naturally more successful in the eastern than in the western part.
14. Danzig at the mouth of the Elbe is an important port.
15. Most of the large rivers entering the Mediterranean, Black, and Caspian Seas have delta mouths and are, therefore, handicapped for commerce.
16. Marseilles is the greatest seaport of France.
17. The chief petroleum deposits of Europe are near Baku on the Black Sea.
18. The most used route to the sea for Swiss foreign trade naturally lies through Italy.
19. The leading European fisheries are found in the North Sea.
20. The British Isles are in the same latitude as the United States.

G 47. COMMODITIES WITH NEW WORLD PLACE NAMES

The place names below are included in the names of certain commodities. Write the names as shown in number 1.

1. Alaska	Alaska Salmon
2. Bedford	
3. Brazil	
4. Brazilian	
5. Bermuda	
6. Canadian	
7. Chilean	
8. Concord	
9. Connellsville	
10. Cuban	
11. Durham	
12. Elgin	
13. Havana	
14. Jamaica	
15. Lehigh	
16. Niagara	
17. Panama	
18. Para	
19. Paraguay	
20. Peruvian	
21. Rhode Island	
22. Rockford	
23. Santa Clara	
24. Waltham	

Revised Historical Viewpoints

RALPH B. GUINNESS

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JOHN PETER ALTGELD¹

John Peter Altgeld's championship of labor in the Haymarket affair and in the Pullman Strike is well known. However, his life in general and his state industrial and penal reforms have been little publicized. Altgeld had risen from the ranks of common laborers to that of a millionaire realtor, judge and governor.

His first state reform measure was the Factory Inspection Act of 1893. This was brought about chiefly through the work of Jane Addams, Florence Kelley, Clarence Darrow, George Schilling and others. Altgeld had denounced child labor exploitation in his inaugural address. The act prohibited sweatshop child labor for those under fourteen and more than forty-eight hours a week for women. Enforcement by a sympathetic inspector, Florence Kelley, was ended by her removal by a new governor. The law was weakened in 1895 by a state Supreme Court decision annulling the section limiting the hours of women.

Altgeld put through a labor board law which mediated disputes between capital and labor. Another law forbade dismissal of employees because of labor union activity. In 1895 with the help of the Civic Federation of Chicago a Civil Service Act was passed setting up a civil service board in each city providing for a merit system and forbidding enforced campaign contributions and other fraudulent practices.

Altgeld was an enthusiastic friend and supporter of Henry D. Lloyd, opponent of monopolies. He sent him, Darrow, and others to a national anti-trust convention at Chicago whose efforts were sabotaged by an anti-trust association set up by railroad and coal-trust delegates. Earlier, in 1893, Altgeld had secured the passage of a law curbing monopolies. It prohibited price-fixing, limitation of output, and all pooling agreements. In 1895, he vetoed three bills designed to give monopolistic privileges to gas, street car and elevated companies. These vetoes occurred despite a \$500,000 bribe offer to sign at a time when his fortune had been depleted by the depression. He was unsuccessful in efforts to raise the tax assessments of big corporations to equitable levels. In 1901 a court order raised the Pullman assessment 1100 per cent and that of a gas company 3900 per cent.

He had campaigned for office on the issue of penal

reform. He opposed brutalities as futile as well as inhumane. He believed in work for prisoners for their rehabilitation, but opposed production for profit in competition with free labor. He championed the parole system to induce good behavior through the prospect of a reduced term. He abolished the traditional striped prison suit, substituting plain gray; for the juvenile offenders he provided vocational training in modern reformatory institutions.

He improved the care of the mentally and physically ill by the enlargement of state hospitals, by building two new ones, by introducing the merit system in the selection of nurses and orderlies, and by requesting his hospital superintendents to study European systems of treatments. He sponsored state education raising the Illinois Industrial University to a high level of a state university. He secured increased appropriations and appointed Andrew S. Draper as president.

THE ORIGIN AND SIGNIFICANCE OF FEUDALISM²

Montesquieu said the essence of feudalism lay in the custom of vassalage which could be traced back to the comitatus. The vassal received a fief of conquered lands, a form of pay for loyal service. Paul Roth in 1850 declared the basis of the German state was the dependence of every free man upon the common ruler of the state. According to Roth, feudalism arose when Charles Martel distributed church lands among his vassals in return for quotas of troops.

Brunner agrees with Roth that the feudal state derived from the union of vassalage and benefice. The rapid extension of vassalage, henceforth associated with benefice holding, was due to a change from infantry to cavalry as the dominant element in the Frankish army. Experience in warfare, especially with the Saracens, caused the change. Vassals were given lands in return for furnishing mounted troops.

Carl Stephenson concludes that the basis for feudalism was military need. The king gave fiefs to his vassals and encouraged subinfeudation for the primary purpose of securing a better army. The original feudalism was a phase of government developed by the Frankish kings on the pre-existing barbarian custom of vassalage.

According to Stephenson, decentralization, or "feudal anarchy," following Hallam's generaliza-

¹ Harvey Wish, "Altgeld and the Progressive Tradition," *American Historical Review*, XLVI (July 1941), 813-831.

² Carl Stephenson, "The Origin and Significance of Feudalism," *American Historical Review* (July 1941), 788-812.

tion, was due to the natural result of a vast and barbarous empire feebly administered, and the cause rather than the result of the general establishment of feudal tenure. Vassalage was used to buttress monarchical authority. As royal vassals were increasingly used in routine church and state administration, and on special missions, they were given rich benefices. This tended to weaken the monarchical authority. Men living on distant fiefs gave loyalty and

support to the immediate lord who gave them sustenance and protection. Feudal custom was present in states where the central authority was strong as well as in those where it was weak. If feudalism was intrinsically a weakness, and a form of anarchy to which men resorted, there would have been no strong states. Norman dukes developed efficient government in their own duchies and then in England.

How Can Social Studies Teachers Best Serve in the Present Emergency¹

Viewpoint of an Educator

M. E. GLADFELTER

Vice President, Temple University, Philadelphia

When a crisis comes upon a people, they stand for a while in bewilderment. Then a course of action is determined on and the various groups and organizations in the society mold their forces to fit into the accepted course of action. This is the situation in which we find ourselves today. Each of us is aware of the problems which confront us. Some of us plan our course of action in accordance with the tenets of selfish individuals, while others think unselfishly of the society or the government of which we are a part. As teachers, we must pursue the latter course. In so doing, we think of those with whom we meet every day and the attitudes that should be exemplified in the attainment of the objectives uppermost in our minds. In the attainment of these objectives there arise difficult, yet not unsurmountable problems. For us they are primarily concerned with the job of teaching. I wish to suggest briefly three such problems. They are inseparable, even though to many organizations and groups they seem totally unrelated. In this crisis, we might stand as terrified as a farmer when he sees an approaching storm and hopes that the lightning will not strike here, or if we are inspired by the purposes and ideals which impel our society, we turn to each other and say: "What can I do as a businessman? What can I do as a teacher? Can I contribute to this emergency?"

For us the first question then is: What should we as teachers do during a time of emergency? As teachers we can and should do nothing. As citizens we can do much. If during the years that have passed

we have not as teachers inspired youth to want to defend and protect those ideals which we call democracy, it is certainly too late to do so now. If our teaching has not been vital and pointed enough to arouse our national conscience when the country is in jeopardy, then there is doubt that a spurious attempt to awaken the conscience of youth would give us a long time gain. It would be like speeding up to pass a changing stop-light. We reach the appointment on time but pay the bill for a traffic violation later. The teacher of history must be concerned about the long-time cause and effect of his teaching. When he ceases to have this overview and becomes distracted by the clouds on the horizon, he is misleading those who sit at his feet. As teachers we must weigh our attention to a crisis, but as citizens we must contribute actively to the solution of the problems at our door. Citizenship, like character, is not taught; it is caught. The courses which are commonly outlined as citizenship courses are gross misnomers. Pupils do not learn from a printed page to respect, and admire, and serve. This is done by observing and experiencing the benefits which come to one when he observes, respects, and serves. The greatest lessons in a time like this come from the observations which pupils will make of our behavior, of our activities, and of our devotion.

At a meeting some time ago we observed that a fair percentage of the faculty of Temple University is in some way associated with activities closely related to national defense. Some of these persons are probably knitting for the Red Cross or hold membership in a local civilian defense unit, while others are working on explosives and aerodynamics. Of course, a larger percentage of the faculty could not be specifically identified with any defense activities. One of the older members of the group observed that although he was not actively associated in defense work, he was making a contribution to national defense. He was thinking of the morale which this country needed. He was trying to determine which

¹ The three papers that make up this article were read at the meeting of the Social Studies Club of the Secondary School Teachers of Philadelphia at the Philadelphia Teachers Association Annual Conference, held December 6, 1941.

boys would be able to contribute most to the welfare of this country after the war. He was selecting from them those who, if they remained in college now, would mean more to our country later—those who should prepare for reconstruction because without them we might not rise from the ruins of a war. This I am inclined to agree is also a contribution, a contribution to the morale of the country. Such, probably, is the silent and unwritten contribution of many teachers.

The second problem which confronts the history teacher is closely associated with a period of crisis. It concerns the attitude of the teacher in the discussion of what are commonly called controversial issues. These arise in great numbers during a period of crisis. Discussion is with restraint, and complicated issues become increasingly perplexing. Unfortunately, many people are more disturbed about the printed page than they are about the teacher who interprets it. To the teacher, the printed page is like clay in the hands of the sculptor. He can take the paragraph about the Treaty of Versailles and draw a stirring moral lesson which indicates how we as a people sacrificed in order that the world might be made safe for democracy. He can overlook all of the facts about Sudetenland and Czechoslovakia and how the world was made unsafe for democracy by a few selfish and revenge-seeking Europeans.

We must approach dispassionately—the formulation of any policy for the presentation and discussion of controversial issues. There has been too much muddled thinking concerning the interpretation of such symbols as communist, socialist, nazi, or even legionnaire. Fifteen years ago, we called an adversary a bolshevik when we wished to attach an odium to his name through an unsavory alliance. Today we call him a nazi or a communist, and we are sure the public will distrust or dislike him. The terms have come to be used so carelessly that it is difficult and sometimes dangerous for one to use them wisely. Then, in addition to the unsavoriness of terms, we find our doorsteps and even our classrooms littered with propaganda which makes it still more difficult for us to select the truth from falsehood, honesty from dishonesty, and Americanism from un-Americanism.

We have come to a period in our national thinking when we must assert ourselves. We have come to a time when we as citizens and teachers must take a stand on certain controversial issues. Shall we teach them? No! But we shall never set up a situation in which it becomes impossible to teach about them. We cease to be a democracy when we attempt to suppress ideas. Democracy itself is an idea. It can be the best idea in government only by surviving other ideas, and not by suppressing them. The Educational Policies Commission has rendered a distinguished service in pointing the way for us in the study of controversial issues as well as suggesting more concrete

ways for making democracy significant in the minds of youth. In many transcriptions of classroom discussions which are presented in the *Case Book*,² we cannot help but be impressed with the high-mindedness of youth and the great opportunity for wise teachers to mold attitudes in the classroom. Like Aesop with his fables, the wise teacher must draw a moral after the discussion has paved the way for epitomizing the inherent principles in democracy as contrasted with a prescribed rule in an "ism." The moral must be based upon a principle which runs like a thread through the history of our people. It must be drawn so sharply that it stands out in bold relief against the faint traces of subversive doctrine. This, some will say, is indoctrination. That is what it is intended to be. But let it be the indoctrination of principles and not the indoctrination of conclusions. Idealism is one of the greatest attributes of democracy but it must be built upon practicalities.

This takes us to the third question. Of course, we cannot confine controversial issues to the discussion of policies and governments foreign to our shores. Closely associated with them is the interpretation of the history of our own country, either as it is written or as the teacher thinks it should be written. We read very different meanings into the changing principles in our own way of life. Again so much depends upon the teacher. When Rupert Hughes had written his rather startling stories about George Washington, someone called upon President Coolidge and asked him to suppress the book. Mr. Coolidge walked to the window of his office, looked down the mall, and then with deep reverence said: "Well, the monument still stands." I don't think George Washington ever chopped down a cherry tree. I doubt that he threw a silver dollar across the Potomac, and maybe a prized colt never fell beneath him. But to me he still survived the Conway Cabal, he still crossed the Delaware, he was still the first President of these United States. When I studied American history, I didn't know that the Revolutionary War was partly fought by some misled Pennsylvania-German farmers, while loyalists or tories were anxious to reap the benefits of the British war trade. I didn't know that many southern planters probably entered the Revolutionary War to escape staggering debts due British merchants—debts not discharged until long after the war was over, and then by the government, and not by the debtors themselves. I didn't know that some farmers were even selling their supplies for British gold, while Washington's army was starving at Valley Forge. I didn't know until Raymond Massey gave his portrayal of Abraham Lincoln and until Margaret Leech wrote *Reveille in Washington* that Mr. Lincoln

² Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book in Civic Education* (Washington, D.C., 1940).

was probably lazy and shiftless, and that the Civil War might have been avoided if it had not been for the extremists on both sides. In spite of all this, my picture of Lincoln is the majestic figure in the memorial at Washington or the great stone face on the side of a mountain which dwarfs the trees below it.

The principles in American history are constantly changing. Years after the senior LaFollette's death, we find incorporated into our national government the policies which he preached years before in Wisconsin, and which were then considered quite radical. A law on the statute books of one of our states says:

No history or other textbook shall be adopted for use or be used in any district school, city school, vocational school or high school which falsifies the facts regarding the war of independence, or the War of 1812 or which defames our nation's founders or misrepresents the ideals and causes for which they struggled and sacrificed, or which contains propaganda favorable to any foreign government.

Does this mean that the teacher in this state should not encourage the students to read *Oliver Wiswell* or *The Road to War* or *Lords of Creation*? Certainly it seems that to disregard such writings is to place ourselves on a dead-end street in our attempt to find the truth. The future citizen must be trained to look forward as well as backward. He can learn to appraise values, ideas, institutions and propagandas only by having an experience with them, whether it be verbal or vicarious.

How can one find the truth except by an earnest and sincere attempt to identify falsehood? How can one then teach the truth in American history unless he is constantly exploring the fields of research, new theories, new principles, and relating them to an evolving society? But after we have informed our students on controversial issues and after we have told them what we believe to be the truth in American history, have we then performed our duty? No, our task is merely begun. It remains for us to draw from this searching and seeing, a visible structure which outlines, like a mountain against the horizon, our way of life.

Some time ago, Dr. Reinhold Schairer told a small group that there was an increasing respect among the young people of the occupied countries in Europe for Russia and its idea of government. These youths say to themselves: "The Russians hold off the nazis because they're fighting for something. They're fighting to defend a principle, an idea. If this principle and idea inspires them to fight instead of give up as the French did, there must be something in it to challenge us." He said, that in his judgment the most terrifying problem facing us as a country is to offset the growing respect for communism among the young people in Europe.

If I were to propound this question to you or the thousands of boys in our camps, "Why this national defense?" most of us would probably say not to save democracy, but to fight off nazism. Dr. Thomas Briggs said a year ago that the greatest calamity in England and in this country is that we are not fighting for something, but against something. It is like the feeling we have when we vote.

Does this not suggest to us that maybe the teachers of history during the last generations have failed? They have impressed upon their students the significance of a chronology of events; they have placed much greater significance upon the grades which were to be earned at the end of a semester than upon the attitudes which were to be inculcated through the discussions of those predominating principles for which men lived and died. Yes, here is the greatest task—that of redefining the purposes for teaching history in terms of principles, ideals, and behaviors, and substituting them for the traditional measures used to determine mastery or achievement. This is not an easy task. We have merely begun it, but it is the challenge which is here now.

This we cannot do unless we look back and then ahead; unless we take an overview; unless we keep the supremacy of our idea in government by matching it against all other ideas; unless we are willing to impugn to historians and contemporaries the motives which activated them in their utterances. Perhaps this is what Emerson meant when he said: "The greatest lesson every baby, child, and adult must learn is that of the centuries against the years."

Viewpoint of an Industrialist

JOHN B. MULFORD

Manager of Welfare, Cramp Shipyard, Philadelphia

Once, William Cramp, who founded Cramp Shipyard in 1830, said: "Make a sailor proud of his ship and he becomes not only a better sailor, but a better man." And by the same token: "Make a man or woman proud of America and he or she becomes not only a better American, but a better man or woman." Unfortunately, there are too many people in this country who are not proud of America. They are indifferent—poor citizens, and often dangerous citizens. They remind me of the man whose opinion was asked of an outstandingly beautiful woman. His reply was: "Why, look at that little mole behind her left ear." Too many people in this country are like that. They are too eager to find fault with our people and the American way of life. Some of them even think Hitler offers something better. Of course, they don't openly express themselves thus, but their enthusiasm for the things most of us hold dear, is as inspiring as a wet sponge. We have a few such men

(Continued on page 171)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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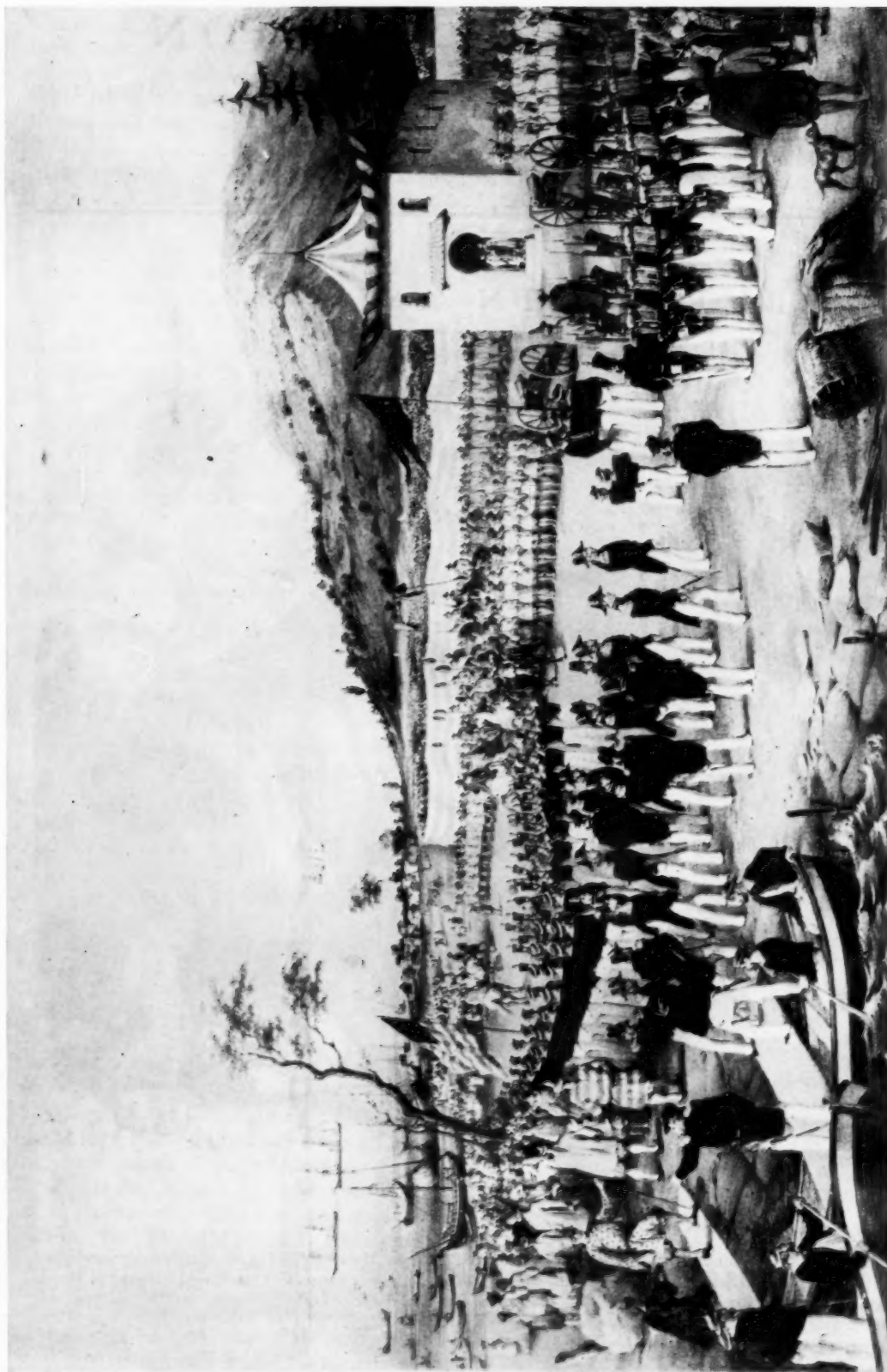
EUROPE IN ASIA



“NO YOU DON'T!”

This cartoon by the famous English cartoonist, John Tenniel, appeared in *Punch* on March 14, 1885. It directs attention to one phase of the situation in the Middle East which was acute in the closing quarter of the nineteenth century—the threat of Russia to England's hold on India. In 1885 Russia had attacked a post called Penjdeh on the Afghan frontier and for a time war between England and Russia seemed imminent. It was, however, averted.

EUROPE IN ASIA



The Landing of the Perry Expedition in the bay of Yedo, Japan, on July 14, 1853. This was the occasion of the delivery of the President's message. After its delivery Commodore Perry disembarked announcing he would be back within a year for his reply. The following description of the scene by Bayard Taylor forms part of the caption on the original print:

The Officers comprising the Commodore's escort formed a double line from the jetty and as he passed between them, fell into the proper order behind them. He was received with

Courtesy, The Old Print Shop, Inc., New York City

the customary honors and the procession immediately started for the place of reception. A stalwart boatswain's mate was selected to bear the broad pennant of the Commodore, supported by two very tall and powerful Negro seamen, completely armed. Behind these followed two sailor boys bearing the letter of the President and the Commodore's letter of credence in their sumptuous boxes wrapped in scarlet cloth; then came the Commodore himself with his staff and escort of officers. The marine force, which is a fine athletic body of men composed by Major Gillen with a detachment from the "Mississippi" under Captain Slack, led the way and the corps of seamen from all the ships followed.

EUROPE IN ASIA



Japanese soldiers at Yokohama, a lithograph from Commodore Perry's official report of the expedition prepared for the United States Government. Considerable pains were taken with the writing of this report and in the preface the Commodore acknowledges

the services of the artists, Mr. W. Heine and Mr. E. Brown. This picture was drawn "from nature" by the former.

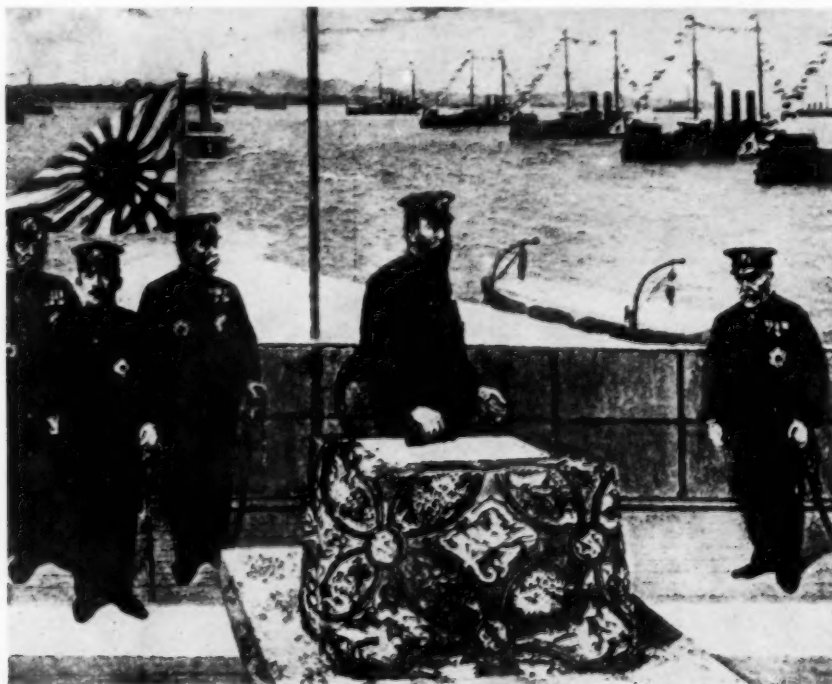
EUROPE IN ASIA



THE JAP IN THE CHINA SHOP.

Master of the Situation (top): "Now THEN, YOU PISO-HEADED OLD PIGTAIL, OPEN YOUR SHOP—AND HAND ME THE KEYS!"

This cartoon appeared in *Punch* on April 27, 1895, ten days after the signing of the Treaty of Shimonoseki which closed the Sino-Japanese War. The cartoonist directs attention to significant clauses of the treaty which "was to usher in a new era in the Far East." This cartoon of forty years ago is suggestive of the present struggle between Japan and China.



This picture, one of a series of wall paintings by Japanese artists commemorating the Meiji Era, in the Meiji monastery, represents Emperor Mutsuhito reviewing the Japanese fleet in October, 1905, at the close of the Russo-Japanese War. Almost a generation earlier he had reviewed his first navy of six converted merchant ships. Left to right are the Chief of Naval Staff, the Crown Prince (the present Emperor), the Minister of the Navy, the Emperor and Admiral Togo, hero of the naval battle of the Sea of Japan.

in our own shipyard. The more I think of it, my job rather qualifies me for a position as a sort of a social studies teacher. I not only meet but talk with scores of shipworkers every day, and many evenings during the week. Nearly all want some kind of an answer to some kind of a question about intimate personal affairs and home economics as well as purely routine matters. And a group of about 5,000 shipbuilders is a cross section of a small labor army in action. It is, therefore, my job to know, not only what these men do around the yard, but something about their home life, their domestic affairs, where they live, and much about their children's education. And the way to know the answers to the questions they ask is to go among them as a social studies teacher would do—research for facts where the facts are in the making.

Only the other night my assistant and I went to a wedding of one of our colored machinists. We also attended the reception at the bride's home. The church in which the couple were married seated nine hundred, but nearly a thousand crowded in. There were eight bridesmaids. I have been the guest at weddings of the elite, but some of them suffered in comparison in point of decorum with the wedding the other evening. Both the bridegroom and the bride were college graduates. The bridegroom had won his degree and the bride was a school teacher. Many of their friends had similar high aims in life and were taking advantage of the newer opportunities to progress.

The point I want to spotlight in connection with this is that "Time Marches On" as regards the colored man. If Negroes are rapidly fitting themselves for the more skillful trades, are they to share the same work-bench with the white man, or possibly replace white men who are less efficient? There's a lot of dynamite in this problem, but dynamite or no dynamite, it must be faced calmly and settled intelligently some day—and maybe sooner than we expect. Some social studies teacher may work out a solution, and it is one that is worthy of the best brains in the field of teaching.

In talking with the men in our yard, I find that some do not know as much about the Constitution as they should. Yet they are helping to build fighting ships that may be used against those who want to destroy our Constitution. The other day this yard, as well as other industrial plants in this area, were asked to dedicate a day for the explanation of the purpose of national defense in view of the crisis.

Our President made the high points of the Constitution an important part of his talk not long ago. That might sound like a bromide to some, but there are, unfortunately, too few of us who really know what the Constitution says, especially about freedom of speech, of worship and the right of assemblage, and also what it states about depriving us of our life, liberty and property. And also, in crystal clear lan-

guage, how our rights may not be abridged by our government or any state on account of race or color. You and I frequently hear in public speeches and private conversations many things about our Constitution that would make its authors turn over in their graves.

Maybe I know a bit more about the Constitution today than ever before, because some foreign-born shipyard men ask me to explain some of the puzzling things in this blue print of the American pattern of life. In this respect, I liken myself to the woman who taught the deaf, blind and speechless Helen Keller how to converse intelligently with others. Said this teacher: "Socialism, bolshevism and communism were mere words to me until Helen asked me to tell her all I could find out about these subjects. As a result, Helen's curiosity served as a liberal education to me, as well as to her. I have learned a lot about a number of things because I was transformed into a human question box." It would, therefore, seem to me that any social studies teacher who isn't fortified with facts above the average on social subjects, can't convince others of the advantages of the American Bill of Rights if that teacher doesn't know a great deal about the Bill of Rights.

Not long ago I asked a high school teacher what she would tell Hitler if he asked her why Americanism meant more for world progress than nazism and she flippantly replied: "I would tell him I never read *Mein Kampf*." Well, that seems like a clever reply but it isn't the answer. If that teacher is as evasive in her school room practice, I should well imagine her pupils would be confused and uninformed. Intelligent, informed loyalty should have been evidenced in her answer.

How can any of us do anything to help America prepare for the present emergency unless we know more about the causes of the emergency, and America's power and adaptability to cope with them. We first have to sell ourselves on America like the naval officer who said: "My country, may it always be right, but right or wrong, my country."

If there is anything wrong with America, Americans alone will correct it. That would be my recommendation to a social studies teacher who is seeking a way to do her part in alarming, or informing, or whatever one might want to call it at this time. I don't want to be misunderstood to the point of saying we should urge our children to go around with a chip on their shoulder. But I do mean that it is the job of every good American to be ready and willing to defend America against those who hate it and against the Mr. Milquetoasts in our own ranks who sit on their hands when it is time to applaud. The teacher who wants to do her bit for America should turn her attention to the stimulation of such individuals.

Once a group of Milquetoasts came to Mr. Cramp

and warned him that if Cramp Shipyard built any battleships for Russia, it would incur the enmity of England, and that dire things would happen to us. To which Mr. Cramp replied: "Cramp builds battleships as well as peace ships, just as England builds ships of all kinds for all nations. Russia seeks out Cramp's to build ships for her because she knows we build good ships." This yard built those ships, but whether it was because they looked too formidable, or whether England thought it was more economical to appease Russia, the ships were never used in battle. Russia, incidentally, said these ships saved the cost of a great war, and were the best investment Russia ever made.

While I am on the subject of fighting, I might casually mention the oft-quoted remark of the mother who says: "I didn't raise my son to be a soldier"—the kind who stabs you with a glance that shimmers like a shining saber. What mother, anywhere, brings up her boy to be a soldier? But so long as there is greed, and the ambition to possess what someone else has, there must be armed police and soldiers in the world. And in times like these, when we find that certain countries have stopped practically every form of useful work and turned their time and energies into the fabrication of the most frightful form of life-destroying implements of war, and trained almost all their youth and many of their men of middle life into their use, then it is time to sit up and take notice. But when we see this juggernaut of death leveling peaceful countries that resist, and wantonly hurling bombs upon defenseless women and children, then it is time for social studies teachers, and others to do something—to act and to meet force with force—as force is the only thing these bloodthirsty people understand.

This brings up the final recommendation I might make to teachers: Know much about our Selective Draft System, and emphasize to others why they live in a country whose people do not go on strike to prevent it, or hamper it, in any way. Of course, the Selective Draft System has some faults, but those faults will be corrected by Americans in the American way. A boy in the Axis countries who fails to reply to the call to the colors is subject to being stood up against a wall murmuring a silent prayer: "May God have mercy on my soul." This could not happen in our country.

To sum up briefly my suggestions as a work plan for social studies teachers, I would not only have them increase their audience of listeners, but become more militant. Let people know how you stand, because a person with honest, positive opinions attracts, whereas a silent, sullen person often sets up a barrier and is avoided. These are the days when Americans must unite and organize for action all the peaceful people at home who cannot serve in the armed forces or in the rugged shops of ammunition and armament pro-

duction, because they too are an army of real help and importance. Just now there is no more important army in this country than our social studies teachers, and especially those who are not waiting to be drafted.

Viewpoint of a Government Representative

C. D. HERTZOG

Manager, Third United States Civil Service District, Philadelphia

The questions of attitudes which should be encouraged and inculcated and the subject matter which should be stressed in our schools are so closely related that it is scarcely practicable to divide them. The question of the attitudes which teachers should attempt to encourage, naturally goes back to the question of guidance, which has received some attention in the public school system, but based on results which I have observed, the program of vocational guidance has not been sufficiently extensive.

Is it not true that many students leave high school without preparation for any particular line of endeavor, whether it be a trade or skilled occupation, and in many instances without sufficient background to warrant further training in schools of higher learning? Unfortunately, it seems that the attitude of many students appears to be one which results in taking those courses that can be completed with the least possible mental strain and with the least possible effort on their part, with the idea of obtaining a sufficient number of credits to graduate, regardless of what those credits may be and irrespective of what they plan, if anything, to do after graduation. This may be rather a severe summation, but I believe the fact remains that many high school graduates are not prepared for any particular field and require further training before they can fit into any program involving useful work. Being directly concerned with the recruitment of personnel for the National Defense Program, I can say that never was there a time in our history when we have faced a situation so critical with respect to securing skilled workers needed to carry on National Defense. It is highly important to the welfare of our country that young men and women when they graduate from high school will have received training during their school years which will enable them to take their places in productive work and anything which our public school system can do to improve the present situation will be of material value to our country as a whole.

There is at this time a very urgent need for skilled workers along mechanical lines. The federal government and defense industries generally need young men and women who have been trained to work with their hands as well as their minds. Notwithstanding this fact, it has been our experience that it is with the greatest reluctance that many young men and women

leaving high school will accept a position which involves the soiling of their hands. With proper training during the school years and guidance in the matter of proper attitudes upon the part of the students this situation would be materially improved.

I believe we can all agree that the adolescent youth is, in most cases, incapable of determining what he wants to do after completion of his schooling or what course he should pursue in order to attain his objective. The purpose of the vocational guidance program has been to assist students in finding their objective and in reaching that goal. Naturally, this involves the attitude of the student toward his future, the subject matter which he must study in order to reach his objective, and a definite plan for his future after graduation from high school. Specific subject matter which should be stressed is, of course, dependent upon the objective of the student.

At the present time there is a very great and definite need for employees in various engineering fields, as well as in the accountancy field, and I cannot stress again too strongly the need for skilled mechanical workers. Obviously, each of these requires a different background. I believe it is true that many students because of improper guidance take courses in high schools which prepare them for college entrance when conditions are such that there is no possibility of their being able to go on to college. Others take a general course which actually prepares them for nothing in particular. When a student is called upon to decide with reference to the particular subjects or courses he will take, he needs the guidance of his teachers and also of his parents, if they are capable of giving such guidance, so that he will choose the subjects best fitted for his individual case and those which will best fit him to attain his objective after graduation from high school. I doubt if sufficient attention has been paid to the matter of guiding students at the outset in choosing proper subjects and courses.

Vocational education has long been considered as best for the boys or girls who cannot make good in any other field. Because of conditions which have existed since the commencement of the National Defense Program this situation has been corrected to a considerable extent. However, at the present time it is believed that further stress should be placed upon preparing the high school student to take his place in Civil Service or in private industry upon completion of high school unless he is definitely able financially to go on to college and appears to be suitable material for higher learning. This viewpoint, of course, would necessitate the even further expansion of facilities and the placing of greater stress on vocational work, as well as reasonable restriction to prevent the student from wandering from one course to another, as a result of which he would pick up a

smattering in each one of the courses attempted without receiving training which would qualify him for any particular field.

As I understand it, the major objective of education is to prepare an individual to take his place in the community as a good citizen. Since this is a major objective of education it seems to me that it necessarily follows that a conscious attempt must be made to develop good citizenship so that the student may be prepared as a good citizen to take his place as a useful member of society in the community. It is essential in order to train and develop a good citizen that the student be told the whole truth about American history as well as the truth in all other branches of learning. I firmly believe that neither patriotism nor good citizenship can be founded on a sound basis by teaching in our schools only those particular phases of history which tend to bring glory to our own country. The truth and the whole truth should be told. For example, the practice, if, as a matter of fact it is followed, of teaching in our northern schools that the South was entirely wrong in the Civil War, and in our southern schools of teaching that the North was entirely wrong, neither results in good citizenship nor a united country, which is so vitally needed today. If a practice such as referred to is followed, eventually the student learns at least a part of the truth about which he was misled in school and as a consequence he may look back questioningly at everything he was taught. This not only applies to American history or conditions within our own country but to the history of our relationships with other countries as well. I believe we can all agree that no country can be entirely right in everything at all times, and that no system of government is perfect. Of course, we believe that our system of government is the best of all systems. At the same time we must recognize its shortcomings and the truth as to its imperfections should not be withheld.

In our schools no attempted reform of society should be made in itself, but by teaching good, sound citizenship and developing good citizenship such reform of society as is needed will very likely be accomplished.

In conclusion I would say that if education and the training given in our schools can prepare a student to take his place as a member of society in a useful occupation or trade upon graduation it will have done its part without attempting to do anything else. If our schools can provide suitable material to relieve the present shortage of skilled workers to carry on productive work in our National Defense Program, any action which can be taken by our teachers towards that end, will, in my opinion, be a material contribution toward preparing America for the present grave emergency.

Term Projects in Social Studies Classes

C. C. HARVEY

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At the beginning of the present school year the social studies classes at Tamms Community High School selected topics around which to build class projects for the term. During the first month of school, a part of each class period was devoted to discussion of the topics which were proposed, and those finally selected were the ones students believed would be of most interest and most appropriate this year.

The topics selected for the four social science courses offered in the high school were as follows:

Sociology—"Planning My Life." This class is composed mostly of seniors who will not attend college but who will try to find employment after their graduation. Discussion is held during recitations on various aspects of the topic. Students write to various organizations and agencies and get material for use as a basis of class reports and discussion. Committees of students investigate questions and bring in reports of what they have learned. Each student keeps a planbook in which all ideas are recorded. Students are working on such questions as: "After high school, what?" Some of the questions which the students attempt to answer are: Who am I? What are my needs? What are my desires? How am I dependent upon others? What are my weaknesses? What kind of work am I qualified for? What types of work can I secure? What activities in the community should I take part in? What are my ideals of home and family life? How does one make friends?

American History—"I Am An American." In this project, students are attempting to answer the questions: "What does my country mean to me?" and "What can I do to aid my country at the present time?" They have brought together an enormous amount of material and ideas both from the history of the United States and contemporary life. They have made a list of the ideals which they believe America stands for. They have listed the things America has contributed to civilization in such fields as invention, literature, scientific discovery, etc. They are carrying on systematic discussion of problems which exist at the present time. In selecting the topic around which to build a term project, the students agreed that one of the things which an American history course should do is to make students appreciate their country and what it does for them and means to them as individuals. The class has taken two trips to places of interest in this section of the country. Members of the class have written to over

one hundred organizations, institutions, and individuals to secure material and ideas for the project. The class is composed of juniors and seniors.

Elementary Civics—"My Community: What I Can Do to Make It a More Desirable Place in Which to Live." This class is composed of ninth grade students. The project started after a discussion of the characteristics which are desirable in a community. Next the group made an outline for use in evaluating the community. Next was a survey of the community. When the survey was finished, the groups spent much time in discussion of various aspects of community life. The last part of the project will be to study ways in which the community can be improved, and what students can do to help with this improvement. In making the outline for evaluating the local community and in making the survey of the community, booklets secured from the National League of Women Voters, the Rotary International, the American Youth Commission, and the United States Office of Education were very helpful.

World History—"The Nation That Has the Best Schools and the Best Farms Has the Greatest Future." The students in this class are in the sophomore year of high school. The group had failed to agree upon any one topic around which to build a class project until this one was proposed. The course is a study of the history of the common man—the part he has played in the development of civilization. It gives considerable emphasis to how man has satisfied his needs and aspirations—both physical and cultural—throughout the ages. After the topic was agreed upon, the group spent several days discussing the question: "What things make a nation great?" A list of factors were made which the students agreed were essential to national greatness, and the class began to study how education and agriculture contribute to the growth of these factors. They combed the library to find examples to show how the farm and school contribute to the growth of civilization in various nations throughout the ages. They found many things about the history of the United States which seemed to indicate that the statement is true. From the point of view of the interest the students have taken in working on this topic, no more suitable one could have been found.

An account of how the above topic happened to be selected by the class might be of interest. In this county we have an organization known as the Alexander County Farmers' and Teachers' Institute. Its

purpose is to bring about cooperation of schools and communities in rural sections of the county. About the middle of September I was invited to make an address before this group. In my opening remarks I gave some quotations from the writings of Horace Mann, and concluded that he would say that the nation which has the best schools has the greatest future. Then I quoted some statements made by Vice President Henry A. Wallace which would seem to indicate that he believes that the country which has the best farms has the greatest future. Then I concluded with a statement as follows: "We of the Alexander County Farmers' and Teachers' Institute believe that the country that has the best farms and the best schools has the greatest future." Immediately

an overzealous country preacher jumped up and challenged my statement, saying that the Church is important, and that I was omitting the important part which religion plays in making a country great. I defended my statement by saying that if we have good farms and schools, good churches, homes, and other social institutions of a desirable nature would result. The discussion caught the imagination of the audience and every speaker during the day had something to say about it. The county newspaper played up the discussion, and when the world history class met the following Monday morning some student suggested that they discuss the question. The discussion proved interesting and the class decided to use it as a basis for building a term class project.

Class-Made Visual Aids with Sound Effects

TIMOTHY E. SMITH

Leonia High School, Leonia, New Jersey

"If wishes were horses beggars might ride." How often have teachers, in small school systems, found themselves virtually beggars wishing for visual materials beyond their financial reach! Visual material is so important too, for as has been said: "A good picture is worth a thousand words of description." Such "beggars" may ride, for it is possible to realize one's desire for outstanding pictorial materials at a cost that is within the reach of every little red schoolhouse in the country.

Most teachers have on occasion used slides or movies. They are familiar with the strong and weak points of each method, i.e., expense, difficulty of procurement, shortness of scene, the attention of the pupils centered on the plot instead of the scene and costuming, failure of the material to fit adequately a specific course, etc. If the teacher can produce his own visual material, most, if not all, of these objections may be overcome.

As a teacher of history, I have found a wealth of excellent pictures and illustration in current magazines, newspapers, books, and moving picture stills. Such material, when collected, sifted, grouped into teaching units to fit a particular course and then made into slides, becomes outstanding visual education material. It is easy enough to collect and select the illustrations. It is even easier to make slides of them.

Slides of excellent quality can be made cheaply and easily by the following method. Secure a 35 mm.

Argus camera, model A F. This camera has been selling for about \$15.00. It is a focusing camera and will focus within fifteen inches of the object. An additional lens may be purchased for \$1.50. This lens when placed over the camera lens, permits one to focus within seven inches of the object. Thus it is possible to copy illustrations as small as two and one-half by four and one-half inches. Secure, also, a light meter to judge exposures properly. Argus makes a satisfactory one that sells for twenty-five cents.

The next problem is a proper holder for the camera. A ring stand from the chemistry laboratory will do. A stand of this type permits the camera to face down and photograph an object lying on the table. Just be sure to clamp the camera to the ring so that it will not move when the exposure is made. If you have a little mechanical ability, you can improve on the ring stand by making a holder. The writer devised one that worked very successfully. It was made from odd pieces of plumbing at a cost of about fifty cents. The upright rod of the ring stand should be marked at fifteen, eighteen, and twenty-four inches from the base. These distances correspond with the focusing distances of the camera, thus making it possible to focus the camera quickly for different size pictures; for at a given distance the camera will cover only a definite area. Thus the size of the picture determines the distance that the camera must be away from it to be in proper focus.

Here is a partial chart which covers the size of the pictures most commonly copied.

Focusing Distance of Camera

7 inches (with auxiliary lens)
15 inches
18 inches
24 inches

Area Covered by Lens

2½ by 4 inches
6 by 9 inches
7½ by 11 inches
10 by 16 inches

After securing the size of the picture, it is a simple matter to know how far the camera must be away from it to be in correct focus. Since the upright rod of the ring stand has been marked with the correct distances, the camera can be readily raised or lowered to the indicated distance and the lens set at the corresponding focusing point.

You are now ready to snap the picture. Sufficient light will be furnished by two number two photo-floods to take snapshot exposures. These bulbs may be placed in two ordinary desk lamps. One on either side of the picture will insure uniform lighting. After the film has been completely exposed, it should be taken to a professional developing and printing establishment with the request to develop it and print it for projection. The cost will be about thirty-five cents for developing and two and one-half cents per picture for prints. If kodachrome type A film is

used instead of ordinary film, you can copy pictures in their original colors. The price is \$2.50 for eighteen pictures printed and ready for projection.

The visual material is now ready for use. It may be projected in any 35 mm. projector. An excellent projector of this type can be purchased for \$35.00 from the Society for Visual Education, Chicago, Illinois. These projectors are so efficient that they will operate in a semi-dark room. Special dark shades are not required for the windows.

An interesting innovation may be added to your slides by making a phonograph record to accompany them. Most radio manufacturers produce models which are combination radios and home recorders. Sears Roebuck and Company has a satisfactory one for about \$60.00. One can be bought from that amount up to \$300.00. If one of these machines can be secured, you can make your own lecture to suit your pictures. Blank records that play for about five minutes per side can be bought for about forty cents each. By playing a record on a phonograph while talking into the microphone, you will make a recording of your lecture with an appropriate musical background. In the recordings where I have used this method, my students tell me that they have the sensation of being present at the original scene. The reason is obvious. Music provides an emotional stimulus. Creating a sense of reality in the teaching of history by the combination of pictures, lecture and music is an unexploited method of teaching, which is relatively easy to do, inexpensive, and within the reach of any school system in the United States.

Visual and Other Aids

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Roy Wenger of the Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University, is directing an experiment in the use of motion pictures in teacher education which should be of interest to teachers of the social studies. A group of specialists in the area of visual instruction selected a list of films which they deemed to be of particular value in teacher education. These films were then shown to and evaluated by a group of instructors representing various areas of teacher education.

The immediate purposes of this experiment were to aid the instructors in evolving a method of analysis of films which would help them to further their education objectives, and to provide them with an analysis of specific films to be used when showing the films to their classes.

Evaluation was based upon the following three points:

The Assumptions Underlying the Film. As an example of the group's thinking on this point, let us list the assumptions which they believed to be inherent in the film, *Sharecroppers*, a March of Time production.

(a) A group of persons deprived of a decent standard of living over a long period of time are willing to follow a leader who promises a solution.

(b) It is important for the prosperity of workers that they organize into unions.

(c) The violent means used by the planter owners to drive union organizers away are to be condemned.

(d) Prices for the produce of the sharecropper will remain below parity, thus limiting the income for both sharecroppers and planters to an unsatisfactory level.

Generalizations Significant for Teacher Education.
To illustrate the way in which this point was used to evaluate films, let us list the generalizations which the group drew from the same film:

(a) A whole section of our country—the rural South, has been reduced to a condition of poverty because of the one-crop system. This situation makes it impossible to maintain a decent standard of living.

(b) Fundamental changes must be made in the arrangement of the "system" in order to solve the sharecroppers' problem.

(c) The worker and the planter cannot simply by accepting personal responsibility bring the economic condition of the sharecropper up to the desired level.

(d) The unsatisfactory conditions of the sharecropper is due largely to an unsatisfactory system of farming—the one-crop system.

(e) The one-crop system must be modified. Diversified farming must be encouraged.

(f) Yankee outsiders are responsible for most of the labor agitation in the South.

(g) Elected representatives of the South are powerless to change conditions since it would be political suicide to go against the wishes of the planter.

(h) Southern planters are vehemently opposed to the organization of workers.

(i) Music can play an important part in developing solidarity within a group.

The Larger Social Problems Raised by the Film.
Again using the same film, the group listed the following under this heading:

(a) Under what type of organization can labor and capital work most effectively to gain desirable conditions for each?

(b) How can a farmer gain a sufficient amount of goods and services to maintain a satisfactory standard of living?

(c) How can a favored region or group best help a less favored region or group?

The following is a complete evaluation by the group of the film, *Boy in Court*, a 16 mm. sound, one reel, produced by National Probation Association. This film shows Johnny, in company with three of his "gang," stealing a car which is wrecked during the excitement of their getaway. What might happen to the boy is portrayed in a sequence of police and prison scenes; but what actually happens to him in a good juvenile court with well-organized probation service provides a contrast.

Some Assumptions Involved in the Film.

(a) The producers assumed that the delinquent

boy, who is the chief character in the film is symbolic of most delinquent boys.

(b) The producers assumed that the judge, probation officer, teacher, and house parents are typical of their groups.

(c) The producers of the film assumed that the following factors contributed to the boy's delinquency: his broken home, his over-worked and nagging mother, the family's poverty, the gang.

(d) The producers of the film assumed that the juvenile judge was better able to pass judgment on the boy than was the judge of the regular court.

(e) The juvenile judge assumed that opportunities for rehabilitation would be greater for this boy if he were placed on parole than if he were placed in an industrial school.

(f) The commentator assumed that court records, finger printing, and open trials are undesirable for juvenile delinquents.

(g) The probation officer assumed that one way to help the boy was to go to the place where the gang met to get acquainted with the delinquent boy's friends.

(h) The probation officer assumed that he could help the boy by finding out about his home conditions.

(i) The producers of the film assumed that the delinquent boy was able to get money to buy better clothes before the end of the year's probation.

Some Generalizations for Teacher Education.

(a) Boys associate in gangs and show strong loyalty to their gang.

(b) The delinquent boy in the early part of the picture greatly distrusted all adults whom he met—the policeman, the probation officer, his mother, and the judge.

(c) The kindness and helpfulness of the probation officer soon won the boy's confidence.

(d) The probation officer guided the boy into a constructive use of his leisure time.

(d) The probation officer was greatly interested in the boy and put forth much effort to discover and guide his interests.

(e) The social worker gained the cooperation of the boy's mother in making the home more attractive and pleasant.

(f) The only information about the boy which the teacher had to offer to the probation officer was information about grades and truancy.

(g) Encouraging the boy to develop further his hobby of building model airplanes led to greater effort in some phases of his school work.

(h) The probation officer gathered information about the boy's home life, his friends, his interests, his progress in school, and his past record of delinquency, in order to work with the boy more effectively.

Some Large Social Problems to Which the Film is Related.

- (a) How can juvenile delinquency be reduced?
- (b) How can our schools be influenced to give more attention to the individual problems of pupils?
- (c) How can delinquents be rehabilitated?
- (d) What are the merits of probation and of institutional care?

This method or some modification thereof could be used by the social studies teacher in the secondary school in previewing films for use in the classroom. Or the social studies department acting as a committee could evaluate films to be shown in their classes.

The method could be used to advantage in the social studies class itself. Students could be brought to a realization that basic assumptions underlie the making of films and they could be trained to detect these assumptions and evaluate them. By the same method students could be led to recognize generalizations and social problems treated by the film.

NEWS NOTES

Films

The Cooperative League, 167 West 12th Street, New York City, has released a three reel documentary

sound film entitled *Here is Tomorrow* which depicts the growth of consumer cooperatives in America. This film portrays the origins of successful cooperatives in such areas as cooperatively owned hatcheries, grocery stores, oil well and refineries, insurance business and various other activities. The film may be obtained in either 16 mm. or 35 mm. size upon a rental or purchase basis.

A *Directory* of the available United States government films can be obtained free upon request from the United States Office of Education, Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, Washington, D.C. This *Directory* lists 411 films which were produced by eighteen government agencies. Lantern slides and film strips are included in the bulletin.

Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, recently has released the three following films of interest to social studies teachers:

Panama Interior is a one reel sound film depicting Indian and animal life in the jungle far removed from the Canal.

Indian Life Today is a one reel silent film in color which treats the practicing of Indian crafts as they have been modified by contemporary culture.

Indian Dances of the Southwest is a one reel silent film, obtainable in color, which depicts Indian dances at the annual Gallup Intertribals.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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THE WAY OF MAN'S ADVANCE

Those unacquainted with the work of Harvard's distinguished philosopher, William Ernest Hocking, will find a happy introduction to it in his article on "What Man Can Make of Man," which appeared in the February issue of *Fortune* magazine. Professor Hockings begins with the fact that man is not content, like other creatures, merely to build himself into the habits of his group and his species, to be but putty in their hands. "He is clay with an inner resilience, alive with a bent of its own." He aspires, and under the spur of his aspirations he gropes half blindly toward his goals, revising them as taught by the unforeseen in experience. That is the logic or dialectic of history. It is, at bottom, a revising process pricked on by the surprises of experience. An age, like ours, that is accused of mental or moral inconsistency is but showing signs of the advent of one of these historical surprises.

Since Galileo, we have been preoccupied with time

and movement. Process, change, evolution, growth, have shouldered aside the older concern with absolutes, essences, and substances. "We are gorged with the glory of the endless on-going of the world." Now, inconsistently, we are beset by doubts that time and change suffice to make a world.

We see now, also, that we have been so preoccupied with liberty that we have given scant attention to what liberty is for. Freedom meant merely the loosening of inherited shackles and the flouting of old standards, and was an end in itself. As expounded by Locke and others, rights were the natural and inalienable possessions of individuals. They could be asserted even against the state itself. Under the doctrine of natural rights men acquired confidence and developed a fairly aggressive attitude toward the ordinary ills of existence. They even dreamed of happiness for all for the first time in history. Invention, research, new devices, and new techniques appeared. All these were good. Now we wonder if

there are really costless, unconditional rights. Does not each right bear its companionate responsibility? Have not the traditional ideas of freedom and rights simply left men to imitate their neighbors, falling into the slavery of imitation?

Our age, too, is revising its understanding of science. The method of science has been misinterpreted to mean that stability is an illusion. Now we begin to question whether experimental science is merely a progressive reconstruction of the work of previous students. The purpose of experiment, after all, is to establish something permanent.

Our experience with science has thrown more light on the meaning of truth. It has shown us that truth "is a prescription for meeting a specific quandary; it has a task to do, and when the problem changes, the formula is no longer pertinent." Jefferson, for example, in our quarrel with England, could declare that all men were created equal, and continue to use slaves on his plantations. But if it is argued that the truth which illuminates one situation will never hold in others, then the world of truth is merely a pragmatic quicksand where nothing stays gained. If the end of progress is only pragmatism, then pragmatism will end progress.

These inconsistencies suggest that our era is drawing to a close and a new one is dawning. In the new age, whose seeds were planted a generation or two ago, we shall no longer worship change and relativity for their own sakes, making no distinction between the outworn and the eternal. That distinction will become basic.

It is of deep significance that the matrix of science was medievalism. Galileo and Copernicus were educated in the schools of the medieval Church. Back of science lies the ethical impulse which is rooted in Christian teachings. Humility and selflessness are requisites of the scientist. The one teaches him to obey Nature and the other to lose his own life in the search for Life. Truth is not found by self-assertion. When medieval self-denial swung away from the metaphysical to the physical it brought something new into the world: scientific research. If science were now to repudiate its metaphysical source it could make us into a race of monsters by depriving us of the ability to make truly human use of power.

Modern science is completing a circle back to its parent, the spirit of Christianity. The task of determining processes, of finding out how things operate, has been so exacting that science had to neglect to ask what things were for. Purpose and value were not materials for the laboratory. Now we realize that while science may tell us how the universe goes, it seems not to find it going anywhere. Then man, in the universe, goes nowhere either, he and his transitory achievements. "The final sum is a zero of

meaning." Or is that picture true only in part and false in omitting purpose and value? We now are aware of an inconsistency. Science arose out of a passion for Truth which overrode national boundaries and differences, braved death, and healed petty differences. Scientific truth at least had "an authentic quality of eternity." Now that it has established its method, science is seeing that it needs to provide for value in its picture of the Universe.

Professor Hocking uses an interesting illustration from history. Historians, he says, have been preoccupied with facts, verifiable facts. But the important facts of history are not verifiable, for they occurred in the minds of men. The real, primary deeds were decisions, and they come out of inner debate and emotion and motive. What the historian verifies are actions, the secondary data. Nowadays historians, aware of the inconsistency, are again turning to interpretations, to the motives and passions of men, to their ideas and ideals. Like the scientist, the historian is completing a circle.

We have arrived at the point where we must accept both science and value, both social good and natural right, both psychology and the soul. These are not antithetical, even if they seem so on the surface. It is a psychological commonplace that a man is disordered when he has lost his unity or inner integration. It is an essentially religious function to provide life with unity and value. When man sees the universe whole he recognizes his kinship with the real and acquires a point of certitude.

Professor Hocking's view of the dialectic of history is democratic and anti-totalitarian. Those who criticize democracy, he says, do not realize that it rests not upon what is but upon what ought to be. "The bond of equality and fraternity is to be found, not in scientific measurements, but in common devotion to a goal which is beyond them all. Let men lose faith in their own freedom, that is to say, in their own possibilities; let them lose their direct awareness of a divine thread in history; and the bonds of liberal union are cut at the knot."

The article is in part a condensation from Hocking's little book, *The Lasting Elements of Individualism* (Yale University Press, 1940). Although the lectures on which the book is based were delivered before Hitler broke out of Germany, Professor Hocking's reflections are pertinent to the situation in which we find ourselves now and shall find ourselves after the war.

STRENGTHENING DEMOCRACY IN YOUTH

From time to time, here, reference has been made to articles by Thomas H. Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia University, on the subject of democracy. Several of them have appeared in *School and Society*, and in the issue of February 7 there is

another, "Cassandra Speaks." The work of making democracy strong in the hearts and habits of all the people should take precedence over any other work we do in schools. Said Professor Briggs,

It is true that we are fighting to win a military war, but we are also fighting for something more important—the possibility that every individual, with no exception because of race or creed or status of any kind, may have free and untrammelled opportunities for seeking the greatest amount of happiness that is possible for him in this world, as it is or as it can be made to be. Understanding of this ideal objective, devotion to it even at the cost of personal sacrifice, knowledge of the means to bring it about, or at least progressively to approximate it, and persistence to make it effective are necessities. In this field teachers have a challenging opportunity for leadership.

If need be, the customary curriculum must be set aside while we do this task. In our program there must be four essentials: understanding, devotion, knowledge, and persistence. To fulfil the task requires the answering of eight questions:

1. What sort of new world do we want?
2. How can we help to clarify the meanings of democracy?
3. How can we prepare youth to share effectively in solving post-war problems?
4. How can we learn and teach how to sacrifice willingly for desired general welfare?
5. How can we give youth perspective and also appreciation of permanent values?
6. How can we learn and teach how to select trustworthy leaders?
7. How can we contribute to keep morale high?
8. How can we preserve education by justifying the schools to the public?

Professor Briggs discussed each of these questions. He felt keenly that the promotion of the democratic way of life has, in this crisis, come to be second in importance to no other objective.

Several accounts are available which describe how schools are answering just such questions as Professor Briggs propounds. The Service Center of the Progressive Education Association has prepared a pamphlet describing ways in which pupils in various parts of the country are participating in community work. One hundred and sixty-eight examples of this work were given in the February number of *Progressive Education*, under the title, "Youth Has a Part to Play."

The series of articles by Secretary Carr of the Educational Policies Commission on citizenship education is helpful. The articles in the series have been appearing monthly since September in *The Journal of the National Education Association*. For those who

do not have access to the Commission's *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book in Civic Education*, Dr. Carr's carefully chosen excerpts will be valuable.

In *The Clearing House* for February a new department dealt with this question. In "Schools for Victory" were printed reports of ideas, procedures, plans, and practices of schools throughout the country which are being used to back the nation's war efforts in a democratic way. In the same issue several articles bore on this question. R. J. Bretnall, principal of the Millburn (N.J.) High School related, in "Welfare Workers," how pupils worked with the town's Department of Welfare on the charity program of the community. Eston V. Tubbs, principal of the Morgan Park (Chicago) High School, outlined the course on "International Relations," which is now five years old. The pupils of the Manhattan (Kan.) Junior High School got a state law passed, and learned much about their government in the process. Their teacher, F. E. Mordy, told how it was done, in "We Made a Law." In Philadelphia (Pa.), Harry Pleat made the transition from formalized teaching to socialization, in a junior high school. He tells about it in: "Stepping Stones to Classroom Socialization."

Two new publications aim to provide an "all-out" program, during the war and after, to advance democracy. One is a bulletin on "Community Projects for Child Welfare" which was issued by the National Citizens Committee of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy (122 E. 22nd Street, New York City). These projects illustrate ways for setting up the machinery for the improvement of conditions in a community under which children live. The other is a report on "Youth and the Future" which has just been released by the American Youth Commission (Washington, D.C.). It presents the findings and recommendations of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy and the results of the Commission's own six-year study of youth problems.

Professor Paul R. Hanna of Stanford University and a consultant for the National Resources Planning Board suggested specific ways for youth in our schools to aid in the crisis. His article on "The Classroom—A Defense Unit," in the February number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, examined factors in morale and ways and means of strengthening it, both in groups and in individuals. Professor Hanna assayed every part of the curriculum to see what each could contribute to meet the emergency effectively and democratically.

The National Education Association's National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education has sent an urgent appeal to school boards throughout the land, in the form of a folder on "Defend Democracy by Strengthening Schools." It ably describes the crisis which schools face.

POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

Alfred North Whitehead and Thomas Mann studied some aspects of post-war problems in articles in the *Atlantic Monthly* for February. Professor Whitehead, one of the great mathematicians and philosophers of our day, saw "The Problem of Reconstruction" as one requiring global unity on a scale yet unknown. Such unity, however, should be achieved without sacrificing the limitless variety of cultures which enrich the heritage of the race. Thomas Mann, the foremost literary figure of pre-Nazi Germany, Nobel Prize winner, and a thinker of the first water, told "How to Win the Peace."

When the high winds of hostilities cease, the landscape of civilization will be littered with debris: hatreds, starvation, broken-down economic systems, and wrecked states. Statesmanship must set cooperation above the differences which hitherto have been treasured by groups as of supreme worth, frustrating the wholeness which it now is imperative for mankind to attain, or be destroyed. Stability will be one of the first requisites of the peace. To assure it, people everywhere must feel they are personally and economically secure. This problem must be worked out in terms of "a sincere respect for each individual human being." Freedom and democracy are requisites and not antitheses of authority.

A new opportunity challenges us, the third since the close of the Middle Ages. The discovery of the New World opened a startling new chapter to men. The Industrial Revolution gave them the second opportunity. Critical thinking, today, proffers us the third. "European systematic thought has shown the greatest energy both in self-criticism and by its contact with practical activity. Today it is refashioning the ways of thought and action in every civilized race of the world." The advance in scientific thinking and accomplishment has at last made so many people aware of the practical possibilities of the universal spread of knowledge that a new opportunity challenges us. What is required of us now is to establish the political machinery for world cooperation, within which man can cooperate to realize the new possibilities of action.

Mann's discussion complemented that of Whitehead. He gave much attention to Europe. But like Whitehead he sees mankind whole, sees political machinery as an instrument for promoting wholeness, and sees freedom and democracy and unhampered search for truth as indispensable requisites for the healthy flowering of human culture in its varied aspects.

A NEW BILL OF RIGHTS

In January, the National Resources Planning Board proposed a new bill of rights as the objective of

post-war planning. We are likely to hear much about it and shall therefore want to study it. The rights are nine in number:

1. The right to work, usefully and creatively through the productive years.
2. The right to fair pay, adequate to command the necessities and amenities of life in exchange for work, ideas, thrift, and other socially valuable service.
3. The right to adequate food, clothing, shelter, and medical care.
4. The right to security, with freedom from fear of old age, want, dependency, sickness, unemployment, and accident.
5. The right to live in a system of free enterprise, free from compulsory labor, irresponsible private power, arbitrary public authority, and unregulated monopolies.
6. The right to come and go, to speak or to be silent, free from the spyings of secret political police.
7. The right to equality before the law, with equal access to justice in fact.
8. The right to education, for work, for citizenship, and for personal growth and happiness.
9. The right to rest, recreation, and adventure; the opportunity to enjoy life and take part in an advancing civilization.

In *Frontiers of Democracy* for February 15, several staff members of the National Resources Planning Board explained these rights in an article on "The National Resources Planning Board in War-Time."

TEACHING WAR

One reason often advanced against teaching campaigns and battles is that teachers as laymen in military matters do not understand the science of war. Although popular in treatment, the fact that war operations require technical training to be understood is made clear in Arthur Stanley Riggs' article on "The Evolution of War," in *Scientific Monthly* for February. The keys to war are strategy and tactics, or the art of war and its scientific applications. War is not merely raiding or marauding. It arose with civilization and has been largely the result of the economic need of populations.

Mr. Riggs touched upon the evolution of the art of war since earliest times. He passed in review the military methods of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, and Middle Ages. Over and over again Mr. Riggs suggested comparisons between Hitler's objectives and tactics and those of the past, especially the Assyrians. Both used a code of frightfulness. The Assyrians got *lebensraum*. But it cost them their yeomanry, ruined their economy, and

extended their boundaries beyond their power to protect them, while such fear and hate reared their heads everywhere that when Cyrus struck, the destruction of Assyria was total.

Although weapons have changed, strategy and tactics have not changed much until recently. The infantry of Thutmose fired volleys of arrows for long-range attack, carried spears for short-range work, and used battle-axes in hand-to-hand combat. We substitute rifle and gun for long-range attack, and the hand-grenade and bayonet for short-range. Now, as then, there is reliance upon shock and weight of massed troops: "a bloody, smashing, brutal affair," whether of Hitler or of Pompey.

This article is not of the kind usually encountered by high school pupils and can be read by them with profit.

COMBATING RACE PREJUDICE

The Service Bureau for Intercultural Education has long been using direct education to promote interracial and intercultural friendship and appreciation. In the issue of its *Intercultural Education News* for January the Bureau presented material useful to schools that are working upon the Negro problem. A report is given on replies to a questionnaire submitted to educators, Negro and white. In general they agree that the principal obstacles to the solution of the problem are segregation and our "caste system." In this issue are given also activities to pursue, facts, principles, news, and readings on the problem. In part, this issue was inspired by "Negro History Week," February 8-15, sponsored by the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History.

The Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches is likewise deeply interested in just such problems. In its issue of *Social Action* for January 15, Frank R. Crosswaith and Alfred Baker Lewis describe the problem at considerable length ("Discrimination, Incorporated"). The authors, a labor leader and an important member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, have been studying and writing about this problem together, for some time. In *Social Action* they review the growth of the Negro problem in the United States, point out its accentuation today in wartime, and note the actions taken to meet the present situation. They describe a long-range program for its solution.

CURRICULUM FOR CHARACTER

Professor Joseph S. Butterweck and Mrs. Katharine H. Spessard of Temple University told the story of the four-year experiment to teach for character at Radnor (Pa.) Junior High School, in *The Clearing House* for February ("Character for Community Living"). Mrs. Spessard taught the core

subject, English. She and the other teachers of a given grade met weekly to discuss plans, activities, outcomes, and pupil capabilities and accomplishments. These meetings gave each teacher the benefit of the special aptitudes of her colleagues, one teacher being gifted in finding pupil interests, another in using community resources, another in making concrete applications through models, slides, and other devices.

The area of interest for the experiment was community planning. Pupils and teachers planned the study and worked it out in detail. Each pupil had a personal stake, since he planned for his home and his work in the community, and molded it nearest his heart's desire.

The article takes up the various elements which went into the project to build for democratic character. Perhaps of especial significance are the measures taken to insure thoughtful and helpful cooperation, particularly between the teachers on each grade level.

RURAL PROBLEM

The land policy of the United States has aimed to establish family-sized farms owned and worked by free and independent farmers. The policy was successful. In recent decades, however, causes have been at work to undo it. The 1940 census shows that as much as 34.3% of all land in farms in the United States is operated by only 1.6% of the farmers. These men own 1000 acres or more. If the large-scale operator is swallowing up the homesteads, history is repeating itself. One need only recall the enclosures in England and the rise of villas in the Roman Empire.

This movement is described in the December number of *Rural Sociology* by Professor Edgar Schmiedeler of Catholic University of America. In "Will History Repeat in Rural America?" he sketches the history of our federal land policy and gives facts and figures that show the trend toward large estates, a trend especially noticeable in this century.

Professor Schmiedeler stated that, as in previous times, urban possessors of surplus wealth have been purchasing "baronial estates." An even more important cause today is the impact of mechanization upon farming. Both efficiency and costs require large acreage for the machines to work on. "Mechanized farms mean fewer farms and fewer farmers" and farm hands. The social results are terrible, as Steinbeck's *Grapes of Wrath* revealed. Perhaps in the co-operative movement there may be salvation for the small, independent farmers.

LIFE THROUGH THE AGES

Charles R. Knight has won wide renown for his authentic paintings of early man and creatures of

earlier geologic eras. His article on "Parade of Life Through the Ages," in *The National Geographic Magazine* for February, surveys the procession of life from earliest marine forms to man in the Neolithic Age. In addition to thirteen photographs, Mr. Knight's story is illustrated by twenty-four paintings from his brush, reproduced on colored plates. The whole will appeal to youth.

Since last October, readers will recall, a series of articles on "The Story of Animal Life" from earliest times has been appearing in *Natural History*. The fifth installment, in the February number, dealt with life at the end of the Age of Reptiles and the beginning of the Age of Mammals. The illustrations are taken largely from the findings of American paleontology. The series discusses in greater detail what Mr. Knight had to treat sketchily.

EARLY MAPS OF AMERICA

Of interest to pupils is "The Story of Our Map" which is told by Irene F. Cypher of the American Museum of Natural History in the February issue of *Natural History*. A half-dozen maps of the kind used by our early explorers are reprinted and sketches are given showing the growth of knowledge of our coasts. Miss Cypher told how these maps were made and why they were so often inaccurate and incomplete. The fact is pressed home that our knowledge of the physiography of the continents has been a

matter of slow growth over the centuries; that heartache, daring, adventure and misadventure, chance and purpose of navigators and pioneers are registered in the accurate lines of our modern maps. The student who reads this article will realize that his school maps are more than lines on paper.

REFERENCES IN SOCIAL STUDIES

In *School Review* for February, on pages 133-138, is a list of recent books and articles on the social studies. The list was compiled by Robert E. Keohane of the University of Chicago as part of the article on "References on Secondary School Instruction." By omitting all reference to materials in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* and *Social Education*, Professor Keohane was able to bring together materials in sources less well known to social studies teachers.

MEETINGS

The spring meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers will be held on April 24, 25 at Frederick, Maryland. The Francis Scott Key Hotel will be the headquarters of the conference. Cooperating with the association are the History Teachers Association of Maryland and the Social Science Teachers' Round Table of Washington (D.C.). Copies of the program may be secured from Professor Paul O. Carr, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

The United States and Civilization. By John U. Nef. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. xviii, 421. \$3.00.

Asked to deliver the Walgreen Foundation lectures at the University of Chicago (1941), Dr. Nef undertook to deal with the kind of education we have had; the civilization in which we share; what is wrong, why, and what to do. Recognizing the Herculean character of the task, he disclaims finality and expresses the modest hope that these essays may encourage some readers to face the issues they present. The papers deal with the rise of industrialism, the material, moral and intellectual crisis, humanism, religion, moral philosophy, art, education, economic structure of society, democracy's future, and international justice. Considering the extent of these areas, readers will naturally anticipate, in a single volume, a certain discursiveness of treatment.

Certain central theses may be stated briefly. We face the end of an age. What Germany and Russia

regard as dawn is really twilight. The coming age demands an emphasis on moral values; these, though formulated and made effective in the past, became obscured; they must be rediscovered and related to life to-day. The end of civilization is to cultivate morality, intelligence, beauty, for the sake of man. Education must be remade to contribute to this end; to do so, it must be concerned more with remaking environment, less with training students to fit into it. Education for the future must give to moral philosophy, "in the Platonic, Aristotelian, and Christian sense," (p. 5) a preeminent place in the hierarchy of studies. Pragmatism, instead of being the best philosophy for us, is "in many ways the worst." (p. 219) Religion (Christianity) must be rehabilitated; it is the strongest ally of democracy, the greatest support of artistic inspiration.

The author's thought on industrialism and the material crisis runs thus: "The expansive forces in economic, and particularly in industrial, life that

have developed since the Reformation seem to be playing themselves out." (p. 60) We have reached the end of an era of expansion. Coal and oil would be exhausted long before 2140, if use of them increased at the same rate as in the past 200 years. The world's hydro-electric power, under present conditions, cannot provide the power now derived from coal. Demand for increased industrial output, such as arose in part from expanding population in the past century, will probably not be as great in the twentieth. Continued warfare will lower the standard of living. The flagging of energy in producing goods for ourselves is not likely to be offset by increased effort to carry industrial goods to foreign countries, for Americans have no "effective crusading zeal" in such a cause. (p. 61) In respect to this tendency of thought, the query arises: If, as the author says, the death rate has been reduced indirectly during the past two centuries to an astonishing degree by industrial expansion, why not put industry to work producing for use, bringing the essentials of first-class diet, shelter and clothing to the whole population? Leslie Epstein says "malnutrition affects from one-third to one-half of our population. . . ." League of Nations' figures on nutrition and health show a vast need for goods which are not being supplied.

A second question: If war is going to lower the standard of living and indirectly also decrease the span of life, is Christianity (revitalized, as the author proposes) to launch an all-out offensive against war which is wrecking the gains that have been made? The potentialities in raising living standards and the evil effects of war are recognized, but, as with the weather, nothing is done about it. If Christianity and humanism have proved an ineffectual restraint on the greed of man and his warring struggles for two thousand years, is there solid ground for believing that revising modern education by turning back to Aristotelianism, Platonism, and the doctrines of Aquinas is a practical step towards their restraint? Notwithstanding the undisputed excellence of these and other great thinkers, did they really produce that unity of culture, that salubrity of social life, which some moderns credit to the Gothic Age?

In respect to the conflict between totalitarianism and constitutional government, the author takes the point of view that "the moral and intellectual foundations of modern constitutionalism are more fundamental than the economic ones"; (p. 96) and that the moral and intellectual crisis, more than the material, has given rise to totalitarianism. Readers will perhaps compare Beard's view: "A wide diffusion of property and a general equality of condition are the very foundation stones of popular government; a high concentration of wealth is incompatible with universal suffrage. . . ." If the view as to priority of moral and intellectual foundations be

true; and if, as Dr. Nef says, Catholic Christianity and humanism have been the bearers of the customs and traditions which make up this moral and intellectual foundation, it is an interesting question why fascism first arose in Italy, the home both of Catholicism and humanism.

The discursive character of the book renders it more provocative than a definitive treatment would be; the disclaimer in respect to finality is, in a measure, disarming. More disarming still: the author, quoting André Gide, presents "prejudices" as the pillars of civilization. Who will launch a Quixotic assault against "prejudices" in favor of righteousness, honor, beauty, justice, truth, art? It is enough to question whether, to make an effective appeal to the masses of mankind today, these concepts must not be identified with a program of action that is righteous and just—a program that launches a realistic, hard-hitting attack upon the evils which weigh heavily on the sons of Adam. What is good and true in religion and philosophy will have to make itself manifest in field and factory, else the praiseworthy words spoken in cathedrals of learning and religion inspire disdain and derision.

THOMAS WOODY

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Party Government. By E. E. Schattschneider, New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. Pp. xi, 219. \$1.25.

"Why not try party government?" This is the motif dominating this highly interesting analysis of the party system. The political party, its real functions and importance being poorly understood, has not received the attention it merits from the political philosophers. Nor have its potentialities for effective democracy been permanently realized in the development of American political institutions. Like a woman to whom a bad reputation has attached although ill-deserved, the party has been unable to live down an odorous repute which has maligned its true virtue.

The party's potentialities have not been permanently realized because party government is in danger of destruction by pressure groups. The parasitic local boss is a disintegrating force hardly less ominous than the pressure group. "It is possible that party government by national parties adequate to the needs of the nation will emerge, but it is not impossible that disintegration at the hands of the local and special interests now organized to resist the establishment of party government will set in."

As the author sees it, over-all planning, integration and management of public affairs in the general interest is possible only through party government, with national parties functioning as "mobilizers of majorities," as instruments of moderation operating

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JOHN PERRY HORLACHER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The American and His Food: A History of Food Habits in the United States. By Richard O. Cummings. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Revised Ed. Pp. xiii, 291. \$2.50.

This is a book that will appeal to a wide variety

of readers. Professionally, the historian will welcome it as an important addition to that group which includes Beard's *History of the Business Man*, Burlingame's *March of the Iron Men*, Shafer's *Social History of American Agriculture*, and Young's *Recurring Cycles of Fashion, 1760-1937*. The home economists will welcome it as the first systematic historical survey of American food habits; the consumer economists will find it useful as a reference and for a perspective that is difficult to obtain in any other manner; and the sociologist and economist will have frequent occasions to refer to it. The public who will not allow themselves to be frightened away by the copious foot-noting will find it readable and particularly helpful in these days of vitamins and rationing.

The reader will be impressed on more than one item with the painstaking manner in which the author has traced its historical development. Much of the interest of the book lies in the fact that one is constantly discovering the "how it began" of some contemporary common-place.

The first eleven chapters, beginning with "Food On The Farm (1789-1840)" and ending with "Unequal Degrees of Protection (1917-29)," are largely historical. Chapters twelve to fourteen inclusive deal with the "only yesterday" aspects of the history of American foods. The author has successfully met

the problems of historical perspective involved in these chapters by changing the style of presentation, although this necessary change of style at first may be disconcerting to some. Chapters fifteen, "Nutrition For Defense (1940-41)," and sixteen, "Conclusion," should be read by all of those who may be called upon to explain, or who desire to know, the basic factors involved in the wartime food and rationing programs. As a worker in the field of consumer education, the writer finds the tables in the appendices particularly interesting and helpful.

The author, assistant professor of history at Lawrence College, Appleton, Wisconsin, became interested in this problem while preparing a dissertation on the history of the ice industry. The first printing met with a ready success, and this edition, revised to provide a background for the war time problems of food, should find a wide audience.

PROCTOR W. MAYNARD

Ishpeming High School
Ishpeming, Michigan

The Subject Fields in General Education. Edited by John J. De Boer. Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 239. \$1.50.

This volume was sponsored by the National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning, representing twenty-one organizations of teachers in the various school subject fields, plus an advisory committee from the Society for Curriculum Study. Thus it expresses the point of view of the classroom teachers. The members of the commission "gathered around a council table to think through together the problem of general education. From the beginning they agreed to accept the learner, in relation to the multifarious personal and social challenges that he faces, as the starting point in the study. Therefore there was in the deliberations of the Commission no evidence of the familiar competition among the various departments of the secondary school for a larger share of required time in the pupil's schedule. Instead, there was an earnest effort to discover what other departments of the school were attempting to do and to invent effective methods of cooperation among them." Each of the thirteen chapters was written by the representative of the field to which the subject matter relates, but the draft was considered critically by the whole assembled commission. Thus the claims and proposals are tempered and kept realistic by reason of this friendly, cooperative criticism.

The book contains chapters on the following themes: social studies, English, journalism, speech, modern foreign languages, natural science, mathematics, home economics, health and physical educa-

tion, business education, art, the school library, and our emerging life-centered curriculum.

On the whole, the volume is a progressive and competent one. The orientation is in terms of pupil needs rather than academic tradition, and the proposals of materials and methods are pedagogically sound. As would be expected, some of the chapters are better than others. The chapter on the social studies seems to the reviewer especially good. The authors list seven objectives of the social studies, expressed in terms of competent social behavior, and hold that it is the business of the social studies to do their own job well and not ramble whimsically about. "They should not attempt to embrace all knowledge. . . . Other objectives, no matter how interesting, should be held in abeyance until these have been achieved. If time then remains other objectives may be pursued; but helping children to attain creative citizenship is a full time job. It is the purpose of the social studies."

The volume is rather free from the wild claims of what the several subjects "do," so often found in essays by specialists in the subject-matter fields. The caution is, from time to time, sounded that the subject can do so and so "if properly taught." This note could well afford to be stressed many times: *subjects do only what they are made to do* by reason of what is taught in them and how it is taught.

The reviewer recommends this book as a sound body of recommendations on the content and methods for the subject fields in general education.

CHARLES C. PETERS

Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania

Gold Rush by Sea; from the Journal of Garrett W. Low. Edited by Kenneth Haney. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. 1941. Pp. 187. \$2.00.

The journal of Garrett W. Low tells of a voyage to California by way of Cape Horn. It is no ordinary travelogue; the personalities in the ship's company preclude that, and their squabbles, intrigues and amours comprise much of the story. A stormy rounding of the Horn and a Chilean earthquake are among nature's contributions to an epic to which human frailty lends seduction and mutiny. One is left with the impression that the law of averages must have gone somewhat awry in cramming so much adventure into a single voyage. Low's account of his California experiences is more sober—and more convincing. But even though he may have given his imagination free rein at times, he tells an absorbing story.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Builders of Latin America. By Watt Stewart and Harold F. Peterson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. xiii, 343. \$1.68.

Intended, as its preface claims, "to fill a gap in the historical literature of scholars of the earlier high-school years," this volume has been designed by its authors to make "the individual . . . the center of interest in the belief that young students are more readily interested in a person than in an idea, a process, or an impersonal fact."

Thus it is a collection of short biographies of men more or less famous in Latin American political, military, or intellectual life. A brief survey describing events which formed the setting in which these men acted has been inserted as an introduction at the head of each of the four periods into which the authors have divided Latin American history.

For example, in the fourth period, "Toward a Better Future," the authors have wisely selected not generals or dictators, but men of intellectual accomplishments such as Sarmiento, "the educator," Ruben Darío, "poet of the Americas," and Mello Franco, "friend of international peace." Although highly condensed, the introductions give a broad understanding of what is to follow and are adequate as a guide to the teacher.

Although intended for use as a textbook, it is not, in the opinion of the reviewer, of sufficient scope to be used without supplementing it with another text which gives more of the important facts. It is admirable as a guide for the teacher and as collateral reading for the class, whose interest and enthusiasm will be aroused by the graphic style in which men and conditions are described. The comparison and correlation of Latin American history with that of the United States is an important feature.

The numerous illustrations reproduced from photographs must be noted as well as the pronouncing glossary and adequate index. The maps facing the introductions to each of the four parts are unsatisfactory because they attempt to cover too large an area on too small a scale. Twenty-one pages of "discussion questions" and "activity suggestions" will facilitate the use of this book in school classes.

Now, that everything should be done to encourage and contribute to the teaching of Latin American history in the schools, this book will fill a real need. It can, with minor reservations, be well recommended for use in high-school classes.

ALFRED HASBROUCK

Rollins College
Winter Park, Florida

Color, Class and Personality. By Robert L. Sutherland. American Council On Education. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education,

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The study points out that Negro youth are misunderstood by all, even educators and the research specialist, and often—surprisingly—by leaders of their own race. Their problems are serious and tragic. One subject expresses a desire to "have enough to eat every day." These misunderstood youths, isolated from a way of living which is considered all-important, excluded from the rewards and recog-

nition which are awarded white youth, nevertheless represent one-tenth of the youth population of the country. Now, when national unity and security are at stake, we must not ignore their problems.

The staff offer their conclusions "more as hypotheses worthy of trial in a program of action than as hard and fast conclusions." However one would do well to accept these "hypotheses" implicitly; they are based on sound technique and superior standards of investigation, premised on reliable definitions. For a résumé of the findings the reader is urged to give careful attention to the chapter "What Does It All Add Up To?"

Part II of the study suggests "Changes to be Made." Here, in fifty-six pages is a program which should stand as a landmark in the field of race relations and as one of the great contributions in the field of social psychology. It is too vast a program to be reviewed here, but briefly, it involves changing the stereotypes by which Negroes are judged, changing lower class standards, changing education, social work, and religion. It is an ambitious program, but not beyond reach, and must be put into effect. For, as the author points out, democracy cannot stand by its principles if it does not practice them.

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PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Economic Nationalism in Latin America. By Richard F. Behrendt. The School of Inter-American Affairs, Albuquerque, University of New Mexico, 1941. Pp. 22.

No. 1 of *Inter-Americana*, a series of short papers bearing on Latin America and cultural relations in the Southwest of the U.S. Also published in *The New Mexico Quarterly*, November, 1941.

The Future of Peace. By H. M. Kallen. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. iv, 39. 25 cents.

This pamphlet, No. 34, is a good example of the Public Policy Pamphlets, edited by Dr. Harris D. Gideonse, which teachers will find very useful. Special prices on quantities.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Papers of Edward P. Costigan Relating to the Progressive Movement in Colorado, 1902-1917. Edited by Colin B. Goodykoontz. Boulder: University of Colorado, 1941. Pp. xiv, 379. \$2.50.

University of Colorado Historical Collections, Vol. IV. Mostly papers, hitherto unprinted, of Senator Costigan's career up to his appointment to the United States Tariff Commission.

The Supreme Court and Judicial Review. By Robert K. Carr. New York: Farrar and Rinehart. Pp. xiv, 304. \$1.50.

A highly technical and significant question treated with vigor and candor. Maintains the excellence of the American Government in Action series.

Opinion Conflict and School Support. By Frederick T. Rope. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii, 164. Tables. \$2.00.

The schoolman concerned with the impact of public opinion upon school policy will find in this book concrete suggestions for developing a constructive and democratic public relations program.

Norwegian-American Studies and Records. Vol. XII. Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1941. Pp. vii, 203. \$2.00.

Ten essays of pleasing variety, contributing to the history of an important and historically-minded immigrant group. On folk narratives, Norwegian clubs and newspapers, and the like.

Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 787. \$5.00.

These selected papers of the Annual Conference form an excellent volume, as always, of wide appeal. Offers a cross section of the problems and solutions in the forefront of professional consciousness. The principal divisions are: Social Work in War Time, Areas of Social Work, and Social Work in Practice.

Our Changing Society: Its Social, Civic, and Economic Problems. By Paul H. Landis. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1942. Pp. xx, 488. Illustrated. \$1.76.

A text built on the theme that the beginning student should be introduced to problems by considering the social conditions that produce them. Divided into twelve units, with various teaching aids.

Science and Sanity; an Introduction to Non-Aristotelian Systems and General Semantics. By Alfred Korzybski. Second edition. Lancaster, Pa.: The Science Press, 1941. Pp. lxxi, 806. Illustrated. \$6.00.

The Director of the Institute of General Semantics presents an erudite system which explains how to use nervous systems most efficiently, of importance to the educator. A textbook showing how in modern scientific methods we can find factors of sanity, to be tested empirically.

Ireland Past and Present. By Tom Ireland. New

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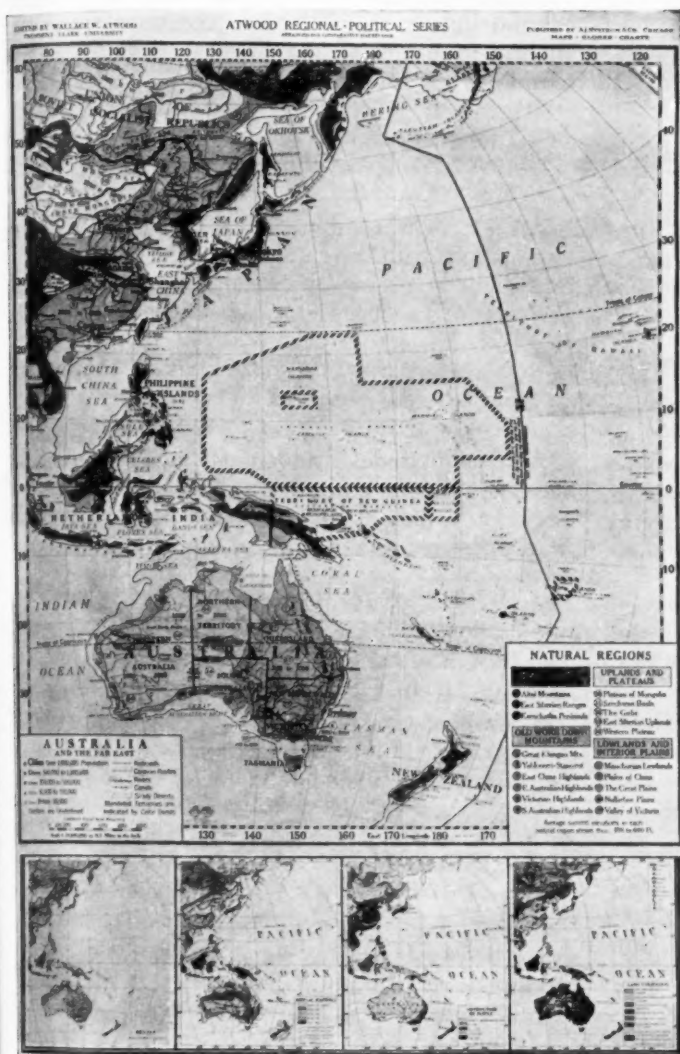
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W080 AUSTRALIA AND THE FAR EAST—Paper wall outline, size 32 by 42. Priced at .25 apiece.

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York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1942. Pp. xlii, 1010. Illustrated. \$5.00.

A broad panorama of Ireland's struggles and responsibilities. Particularly detailed in events and personalities since 1916. The book is dedicated to the proposition that Ireland should be united, prosperous and free.

Introducing Australia. By C. Hartley Grattan. New York: The John Day Company, 1942. Pp. xvi, 331. Illustrated. \$3.00.

A competent, authoritative volume which will fill an unfortunate gap in many school libraries. Grattan demonstrates how the Australians will one day be a great people.

Economic Development in Europe. By Clive Day. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Revised Edition. Pp. xxii, 746. \$4.00.

An excellent text, revised and extended, which provides ample illustration of the inter-relations of economics and politics. Begins with medieval origins and proceeds to the outbreak of World War II in masterly fashion.

Thus Speaks Germany. Edited by W. W. Coole and M. F. Potter. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xix, 412. \$3.50.

Statements by Germans from Frederick the Great to the present to demonstrate that as a nation the Germans are not like other European peoples. The thesis is: Hitler laid bare the German soul, he did not create it. A scathing indictment.

The Challenge of Democracy. By Theodore P. Blaich, Joseph C. Baumgartner and Richard J. Stanley. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. xvi, 593. Illustrated.

An interesting text designed to promote the understanding of democratic ideas as applied to present problems. The book starts with the individual and moves into wider circles.

Outlines of Russian Culture: Part I, Religion and the Church; Part II, Literature; Part III, Architecture, Painting and Music. By Paul Miliukov. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1942. Pp. xiii, 220; v, 130; v, 159. \$2.50, \$1.50, \$2.00 or \$5.00 the set.

These well-edited and translated volumes from a great work by a famous historian are good reading and an important addition to any library. Edited by Michael Karpovich.

Life in Eighteenth Century England. By Robert F. Allen. Boston: Museum of Fine Arts, 1941. No. 4. \$5.20.

A portfolio of forty-two plates with explanatory captions and 40-page interpretative booklet. One of the excellent sets designed by the Division of Museum Extension to present in graphic form a survey of cultural history as reflected in the visual record of art and in historical and literary evidence. Highly recommended for school libraries.

Ten Years: The World On the Way to War, 1930-1940. By Dwight E. Lee. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. Pp. xviii, 443. \$3.75.

An excellent combination of narration and interpretation, with the emphasis on the Great Powers. Useful for a graphic, analytical account. Author is a professor of European history at Clarke University.

Principles of Anthropology. By Eliot D. Chapple and Carleton S. Coon. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1942. Pp. xi, 718. Illustrated. \$3.75.

An attempt to describe explicitly and systematically the principles of anthropology as known in 1942. These principles have been tested both on material from primitive groups and on our own civilization.

The Republic of the United States: A History. By Jeannette P. and Roy F. Nichols. Vol. I, 1493-1865. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942. Pp. xvii, 638. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A well-balanced synthesis and interpretation of events, especially in their relation to all sections of the country. The theme of the book is the Republic.

An Introduction to Sociology. By John L. and John P. Gillin. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 806. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A text divided into six parts: The natural and social bases of society, social institutions, change, processes and pathology. Summaries, readings, and exercises included.

Uncle Sam's Stepchildren: the Reformation of U. S. Indian Policy, 1865-1887. By Loring B. Priest. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1942. Pp. x, 310. \$3.75.

Good reading, focusing interest and sympathy upon the role played by the Indians in the drama of a maturing America.

Man and His Creatures. By H. C. Knapp-Fisher. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company. Pp. viii, 235. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Happy combination of scientific information and fascinating supplementary fact for young people. An entertaining parallel between the evolution of the human and the animal kingdoms and their very close inter-relation. Copiously illustrated.